

PARENTAL USE OF AND ATTITUDE TOWARDS CORPORAL PUNISHMENT IN DESSIE, ETHIOPIA

By

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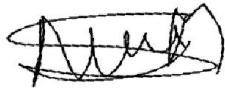
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I declare that *Parental Use of and Attitude towards Corporal Punishment in Dessie, Ethiopia* is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete bibliography.



Signature

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Date

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Abstract

The main purpose of this study was to assess parental usage of and attitude towards corporal punishment. To achieve this purpose, the study utilized a cross-sectional survey design. Using a self-administered questionnaire, quantitative data were gathered from 544 (287M, 257F) participants who were selected using stratified random sampling technique. Frequencies, chi-square, independent samples t-test, one-way ANOVA, logistic regression, and multiple regressions were used to analyze and make meaning of the data. The result indicated that corporal punishment is highly prevalent and frequent in the current sample. The majority of parents (80%) reported they used corporal punishment on their children within the past 12 months, and most of them used it frequently. The responses given to each statement of the attitude scale indicated that the majority of the participants of the study have favourable attitude towards the use of corporal punishment. The most common types of punishment used by parents were found to be knocking on the head (90%), pinching between the thighs (89%), slapping on the face with an open hand (87), beating the arm, buttock, or leg with an open hand (81%), and beating with an object (80%). With respect to type of child misbehaviours, a large number of parents reported that they always used corporal punishment on their children for engaging in behaviours such as disobedience, lying, stealing, playing with dangerous objects, and quarrelling with siblings or other children. The study used an ecological approach to examine how multiple factors are related to parental use of and attitude toward corporal punishment. Accordingly, the result indicated that boys and younger children experience more frequent corporal punishment. Likewise, corporal punishment was found to be more prevalent and frequent among parents who were female in sex, younger in age, lower in education level, and those who had larger number of children. It was also indicated that rural residents than urban residents more frequently used

corporal punishment. With regard to attitude towards corporal punishment, the study revealed that parents more likely to have positive attitude were female in sex, lower in education level, residents of rural area, and those who had larger number of children. Education level, number of children, place of residence, and gender, were found to be the variables that significantly predicted attitude towards corporal punishment and accounted for about 37% of the variation in attitude. The study also showed that the majority of participants are against the legal banning of either all or sever types of corporal punishment. Theoretically, the study findings provide evidence that the risk factors for the use of and attitude towards corporal punishment can be multi-level.

Key terms:

Corporal punishment; Parent; Physical discipline; Prevalence; Frequency; Attitude; Child misbehavior; Physical punishment; Demographic variables; Ecological theory.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

The use of corporal punishment as a means of disciplining children has been a normal occurrence in human society. Strictly defined, corporal punishment is the infliction of pain intended to keep children in line (Straus, 2001). Over the past seven decades, psychologists have been busy investigating the pros and cons of corporal punishment. In the early decades of the 20th century two famous psychologists, Thorndike and Skinner, officially claimed that corporal punishment was an ineffective method in so far as bringing about meaningful and lasting behavioural changes in children was concerned (Hall & Lindzey, 1999).

Despite growing concerns about its use, corporal punishment remains to be the most popular and prevalent child behavioural control in almost all societies and across all cultures. A survey of US families has demonstrated that 94% of American parents have spanked their children (Straus & Stewart, 1999). In a more recent survey of 37 countries including Algeria, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Côte d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Dominican Republic, Egypt, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea-Bissau, Guyana, Iraq, Jamaica, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Mongolia, the Occupied Palestinian Territories, Serbia, Sierra Leone, Suriname, Syrian Arab Republic, Tajikistan, Togo, Trinidad and Tobago, Viet Nam, Yemen and Ukraine 7 out of 10 children reported having experienced some form of corporal punishment (UNICEF, 2010). Furthermore, its prevalence has been estimated at 67% in Haiti (Flynn-O'Brien et al., 2016), 51% in Canada (Oldershaw, 2002), 87% in Northern Ireland (Murphy-Cowan & Stringer, 1999), and more than 90% in New Zealand (Fergusson & Lynskey,

1997). It is also commonly used by parents, as well as teachers, in Jamaica (Smith & Mosby, 2003).

Parental perception and understanding of child development, child-rearing, appropriate discipline, and expectations for children are guided by their belief systems (Keller et al., 2006). Studies have shown that parents who use corporal punishment with their children commonly believe that this disciplinary practice is appropriate, effective, and necessary despite the fact that the child will continue with his or her wrongdoing (Holden, Miller, & Harris, 1999). The beliefs the parents hold regarding childrearing are shaped by the culture and norms of the country in which the parents live.

The link between corporal punishment and the prevailing cultural values and norms has been documented by a large body of research. For instance, Fontes (2002) and Muller (1996) argue that parental attitudes toward and usage of corporal punishment are significantly influenced by the cultural contexts in which the parenting occurs. Research findings have also reported that parental attitude toward child corporal punishment predict their use of corporal punishment on children (Ateah & Durant, 2005; Ateah, Secco, & Woodgate, 2003; Bower-Russa, Knutson, & Winebarger, 2001; Crouch & Behl, 2001; Holden et al., 1999; Vittrup, Holden, & Buck, 2006).

The foregoing discussion clearly shows that despite voices against its use, corporal punishment remains a common way of disciplining children all over the world. Needless to say, corporal punishment is not a culture-specific issue. It has been practiced in many corners of the globe. Ethiopia is one of the nations where corporal punishment is part of its cultures, traditions, and religions.

Child discipline is an integral part of child-rearing in the Ethiopian cultural context. Parents are supposed to teach their kids self-control and acceptable behaviour. The researcher

believes that one way of disciplining children that is practiced by Ethiopian parents is corporal punishment.

Despite the existence of some form of legal protection, Ethiopian children still suffer from one or another type of corporal punishment both in the home and at school. For instance, a study by Save the Children Sweden and African Child Policy Forum (2005) has revealed that corporal punishment is a widely accepted and prevalent form of child disciplining method in Ethiopia. According to this study which involved interviews with 1200 children, only 17 (1.4%) reported that they had never been subjected to any form of corporal punishment. Beating with an object was found to be the most prevalent form of physical punishment. Spanking, hitting, or slapping with a bare hand; hitting or slapping on the hand, arm, or leg; and shaking were also common forms of punishment. Prevalence figures for other forms of physical punishment were 74% for hitting with a stick, 73.3% for hitting on the head, 70.3% slapping, 69.9% pinching, 63.7% being beaten with a belt, and 53.1% being forced to kneel down (Save the Children Sweden & African Child Policy Forum, 2005).

Given the above, no wonder that the use of corporal punishment is strongly rooted in the Ethiopian society. It seems that for many Ethiopians, the word discipline refers to punishment. For instance, the most popular expressions of child misbehaviour in Amharic (the official language) are *ያልተቆነ* [literally, one who is not pinched] and *ያልተቀጣ* [literally, one who is not punished]. As one from the Amhara Regional State, I was brought up under such an environment where corporal punishment was, and still is, a necessary part of growing up. Hence, the interest in this research problem.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Despite the recently increasing concern of government and international organizations such as the UN regarding corporal punishment of children and consequences associated with it, very limited research has been carried out in this area with specific reference to the Ethiopian context. According to Dereje, Nega, and Amenti (2014, p. 18), "A few research conducted so far on this topic primarily focused on the negative effects of corporal punishment of children from the viewpoint of the victims and left the parent's perspective untouched."

In addition, the few studies conducted by various bodies on corporal punishment in Ethiopia primarily focused on its prevalence and type and were conducted in school settings (Daniel & Gobena 1997; Getnet, Daniel, & Elias, 1999; Lelieveld, 2011; Save the Children Denmark, 2008; Silesh, 2001; Stavropoulus, 2006).

According to World Health Organization (2002), approval of harsh physical punishment in child-rearing is deep-rooted in some societies. Such approval of punitive disciplinary methods has been associated with children's vulnerability for maltreatment (Crouch & Behl, 2001). To make intervention strategies successful, the strength of the beliefs and attitudes of the society toward such disciplinary methods should be considered (World Health Organization, 2002). Therefore, it becomes important to assess parental attitude towards corporal punishment and identify the variables that can predict parental attitudes towards and use of corporal punishment.

To have complete picture of corporal punishment use, information about its frequency is essential. Previous studies in Ethiopia mainly focused on the prevalence of the practice. This study, therefore, assesses the frequency of parental corporal punishment use. In addition, the study identifies the common types of child misbehaviours that lead parents to use physical discipline.

Although the use of corporal punishment in institutions such as schools is legally prohibited, unlike other countries that have legally banned the use of corporal punishment in all settings, parental corporal punishment at home is lawful in the country. Little is known about the view of parents on legal ban of corporal punishment in Ethiopia. This study, therefore, assesses the view of parents regarding legal ban of parental corporal punishment.

To the best of the researcher's knowledge, little attention has been given to the attitude of parents towards corporal punishment. Moreover, the available studies have not attempted to incorporate multi-level factors to examine parental corporal punishment use and attitude towards it and were conducted in school settings. Understanding these factors is vital to design effective prevention and intervention strategies. The main purpose of the present study, therefore, is to address these gaps through an assessment of parental use of and attitude towards corporal punishment in the family context. The study also tries to investigate the individual, familial, and community factors which can be associated with the use of and attitude towards corporal punishment.

1.3 Research Questions

The study tries to answer the following questions:

1. What are the prevalence and frequency of corporal punishment use among parents?
2. What is the attitude of parents towards corporal punishment?
3. What types of corporal punishment are commonly used by parents?
4. Which child misbehaviours commonly lead parents to use corporal punishment?
5. Which age groups and gender of children are most frequently being corporally punished?
6. Is there significant association between the prevalence of corporal punishment and the selected demographic variables of parents?

7. Is there significant association between the frequency of corporal punishment and the selected demographic variables of parents?
8. How does attitude of parents toward corporal punishment differ across gender, age, education level, number of children, and place of residence of parents?
9. Which of the demographic variables significantly predict parents' attitude toward corporal punishment?
10. How is attitude of parents associated with their use of corporal punishment?
11. What is the view of parents on legal ban of parental corporal punishment?

1.4 Research Objectives

The objectives of the study are:

1. To assess the prevalence and frequency of corporal punishment use.
2. To assess the attitude of parents towards corporal punishment.
3. To identify the common types of corporal punishment used by parents.
4. To identify the common types of child misbehaviours which led parents to use physical punishment.
5. To identify the age groups and gender of children who are most frequently being physically punished.
6. To examine how demographic variables are associated with the prevalence corporal punishment use.
7. To examine how demographic variables are associated with the frequency of corporal punishment use.

8. To explore gender, educational level, family size, area of residence, and age differences among parents with respect to their attitude toward use of corporal punishment.
9. To identify the demographic variables that can significantly predict parental attitude toward corporal punishment.
10. To examine how attitude of parents is associated with their use of corporal punishment.
11. To assess the view of parents regarding legal ban on use of corporal punishment.

1.5. Delimitation of the Study

This study was conducted on parents living in Dessie town and rural kebeles around it. The study focused on parents in adulthood period. Therefore the age of participants was delimited to be 21 and above years since this is the age that is considered to be the beginning of early adulthood (Santrock, 2012). In addition, since the problem under investigation was on the use of corporal punishment on children, the participants were those parents who had at least one child.

This study also focused on selected factors at individual, familial, and community level. Although there are a number of factors at each level, only gender, age, educational level, family size, and place of residence were considered because of resource limitation and practical issues.

1.6. Significance of the Study

Corporal punishment is a disciplining method that most Ethiopian parents use on their children. Since corporal punishment is considered to be violence against children, it has received a serious concern worldwide.

Despite the fact that corporal punishment is a widely used discipline technique that is traditionally integrated with parents' child-rearing practice in Ethiopia, only limited number of

studies have been conducted on it. The available studies conducted on corporal punishment mainly focused on the prevalence of the problem and were conducted in school settings.

The main purpose of this study is to assess parental use of and attitude toward corporal punishment. Using the ecological model, the study tries to identify factors associated with parents' use of and attitude toward corporal punishment.

The study provides essential information about parental corporal punishment that can assist practitioners, governmental, and nongovernmental organizations that work on the well being of children. Besides the findings can create awareness to concerned bodies to consider corporal punishment as a phenomenon that might be influenced by different factors at individual, familial, and community levels. Moreover, awareness of parental attitude towards corporal punishment, the multi-level factors associated with it, parental views on legal ban of corporal punishment can be helpful for policymakers in their policy development. Finally, the study can serve as a springboard for other researchers to conduct further study on parental corporal punishment.

1.7. Operational Definition of Key Terms

In this study:

- Corporal punishment refers to a physical act such as hitting, pinching, beating, or other physical strategy used by parents to discipline their children.
- Attitude refers to the extent to which parents agree or disagree on statements about corporal punishment.
- Parent refers to a person whose age is 21 and above years, and who has atleast one child.
- Family size refers to the number of children in a household.

- Place of residence refers to urban and rural areas where the parents live.
- Urban area refers to Kebeles that are administered under Dessie City Administration.
- Rural area refers to Kebeles that are administered under Dessie Zuria Wereda Administration.
- Kebele refers to the smallest public administrative unit in which households reside.

1.8. Organization of the Study

This thesis consists of six chapters. The first chapter describes the background of the study. It provides the problem statement, the research questions, the objectives of the study, the scope of the study, the significance of the study, and operational definition of key terms. Chapter two reviews the literature that is related to the use of and attitude toward corporal punishment. The chapter also highlights some theories that can explain the use of corporal punishment. In addition, empirical studies on individual, familial, and community factors that are associated with use of and attitude toward corporal punishment are reviewed in this chapter. The chapter ends with the discussion of corporal punishment in the Ethiopian context and the presentation of conceptual framework.

Chapter three focuses on the research design, population and sampling technique, method of data collection, and data analysis. The reliability and validity issues of data collection instrument and issues of ethical consideration are also included in this chapter.

Chapter four presents the result of the analysis of the collected data. It presents the result of the analysis in line with the research objectives.

The findings of the study are discussed in chapter five. Finally, chapter six reviews the main findings and provides important recommendations based on the study findings. The strengths and limitations of the study are also indicated in this chapter.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This literature review is organized along the following sub-headings: Definition of corporal punishment, prevalence of corporal punishment, attitude toward corporal punishment, effect of corporal punishment, theories explaining the use of corporal punishment, factors associated with corporal punishment, culture and corporal punishment, ban on corporal punishment, corporal punishment in schools, corporal punishment in Ethiopia, and conceptual framework.

2.1. Definition of Corporal Punishment

A close look at the existing psychological literature clearly shows that corporal punishment is a broad term which has been defined differently by different researchers. The lack of agreement about the definition of corporal punishment contributes to the variability of research findings and complicates the debate surrounding its use (Frechette & Romano, 2017). Bitensky (2006) defines corporal punishment as “the gratuitous intentional infliction of pain on children’s bodies for the purpose of modifying behaviour” (p. 2). For the renowned sociologist Professor Murray Arnold Straus who is a leading researcher in the area of family violence, corporal punishment is the use of physical force with the intention of causing a child to experience pain, but not injury, for the purposes of correction or control of the child’s behaviour (1994). This definition states “pain, but not injury” in order to differentiate corporal punishment from physical abuse. Therefore, corporal punishment can be differentiated from physical abuse by the consequence it has on the child. The intention behind corporal punishment is to cause pain but not lasting harm, and its purpose is to manage the child’s behaviour. Straus further states that the most common forms of corporal punishment are spanking, slapping, grabbing or shoving a child roughly (with more force than is needed to move the child), and hitting with certain objects such as a hairbrush, belt, or paddle.

However, some researchers argue that this definition is too broad and likely to include acts that are overly harsh or abusive (Baumrind, Larzelere & Cowan, 2002). Corporal punishment can be categorized into mild and severe types (Nobes & Smith, 1997). The mild types are actions like spanking and smacking; the severe types include actions such as hitting with an object. The severe types have the potential to cause physical or/and psychological injury to the child (Nobes & Smith, 1997). According to Baumrind et al. (2002), the majority of corporal punishment involves a mild to moderate spank to the buttocks with an open hand that causes minimal pain and is most often used as a support to other strategies such as reasoning or time-outs.

In this thesis, corporal punishment is referred to as a physical act such as hitting, pinching, beating, kicking, or other physical strategy used by parents to discipline children whether or not it causes injury. Also, the terms “Corporal punishment”, “Physical punishment”, and “Physical discipline” will be used interchangeably.

2.2. Prevalence of Corporal Punishment around the World

Corporal punishment is a common form of child discipline used in almost all nations around the world (Akmatov, 2011; Gershoff, 2010; Hecker, Hermenau, Isele, & Elbert, 2013; Straus, 2010). About 80% of children are spanked or otherwise physically punished by their parents worldwide (UNICEF, 2014). A study conducted in the United States of America on the use of corporal punishment on all children, over 90% of toddlers and approximately 50% of adolescents experienced parental corporal punishment at least once (Straus & Stewart, 1999). A more recent study showed that 93% of mothers of toddlers reported using physical punishment on their children (Straus & Paschel, 2009).

A study carried out in the United Kingdom consisting of 465 parents found that different types of physical punishment were used by parents such as pushing, holding or throwing, biting, squeezing and pinching, using soap and water, smacking, and using implements such as slippers, wooden spoons, or hairbrushes (Nobes, Smith, Upton, & Hervin, 1999). According to Tang (2006), more than 70% of Chinese parents use physical punishment to discipline their children. A nationally representative data from Canada has indicated that 22.3% of the adult Canadian population reported having been slapped on the face, head, or ears, or spanked or hit with something hard, and 10.5% reported having been pushed grabbed, shoved, or something thrown at them before the age of 16 years (Affi, MacMillan, Boyle, Taillieu, Chung, & Sareen, 2014).

A study in Croatia found that 82% of the study sample reported that they had experienced corporal punishment at home (Vlass-Cicvarcia, Prpica, Bobanb, & Korotaja, 2007). In the Philippines corporal punishment is widely used as a discipline strategy. In a recent study, 74% of Filipino parents reported that corporal punishment has been used in their home to deal with child misbehaviour (Lansford et al., 2010).

A survey of 30,470 families with 2 to 4- year- old children in 24 developing countries showed that 63% of parents reported that their child had been corporally punished in the last month (Lansford & Deates Deckard, 2012). In Ghana, a study conducted on 158 children aged 10-16 years found that the majority (61.4%) experienced physical punishment by parents or primary caregivers (Twam-Danso, 2013).

Over all prevalence data indicated that in low and middle- income countries, about 75% of children aged 2-14 years experienced home violent discipline (UNICEF, 2010).

Based on these studies, it appears that the use of corporal punishment as a means of disciplining children is a common parental behaviour in many countries across the world.

2.3. Attitude towards Corporal Punishment

Researchers have studied attitudes of children, professionals, and parents towards corporal punishment. A number of studies indicated that children accept physical punishment as the right of parents and as part of normal parenting practice (Graziano, Hamblen, & Plante, 1996; Vlastic-Circarcia et al., 2007). A study conducted in Ghana to find out children's perception of corporal punishment reported that 66% of the children felt that corporal punishment is important, with an additional 7% accepting that it was important sometimes or somehow depending on the situation (Twam-Danso, 2013).

Deater-Deckard, Lansford, Dodge, Pettit, and Bates (2003) conducted a longitudinal study to examine the development of attitudes toward corporal punishment in adolescents. The attitude toward corporal punishment of 13-year olds varied greatly. In total, the majority of adolescents held slightly negative views about spanking, but the opinions were normally distributed, ranging from strong support to strong disapproval. The research further indicated that the adolescents whose mothers have spanked them were more supportive of this form of corporal punishment.

The acceptance of corporal punishment as a disciplining method by children may be linked to the cultural norm in which they live. In relation to this, a study of children and their mothers by Lansford et al. (2005) pointed out that in a culture where parental use of corporal punishment is believed to be parents' right and the method is considered to be a normal disciplinary practice; children appear to be more likely to accept corporal punishment as method of disciplining.

Attitude of different professionals has also been examined by researchers. For example Yousif and Mohammed (2015) reported that teachers in governmental basic schools in Khartoum

have positive attitude towards use of corporal punishment. Similarly, studies conducted in Korea (Shin & Koh, 2005), Kenya (Musai, Kimengi, & Kipsoi, 2014), Turkey (Kilimci, 2009), reported that most teachers believe in using corporal punishment in the classroom. According to Hyman (1995), teachers who support the use of physical punishment believe that its use in the classroom prevents student aggression. On the other hand, findings also reported negative attitude of teachers towards use of corporal punishment. Fatima and colleagues (2012) in India and Damen (2012) in Uganda reported that majority of teachers held attitude against use of corporal punishment.

Moreover, studies conducted on professionals and students of the medical sciences showed that majority of the participants are in favour of corporal punishment use. In a study conducted in Israel, corporal punishment was approved by 58% of physicians (Tirosh, Shechter, Choren, & Jaffe, 2003). In England, a survey conducted on 87 pediatricians reported that almost 50% of the participants thought that smacking was effective and about 70% did not believe that smacking can be considered as child abuse (Slade & Tapping, 2008). Besides, a study conducted to determine the attitude of parents, pediatric residents, and medical students in Turkey reported that 56.5% of the medical students accepted beating as an appropriate disciplinary method (Orhon, Ulukol, Bingoer, & Gulnar, 2006). Moreover, a study of medical science students in Malaysia reported that on average, the participants have had a fairly favourable attitude towards corporal punishment (Kumaraswamy & Othman, 2011). On the other hand, a more recent study by Gershoff and colleagues (2016) reported that the majority of staff members of two medical centers in the United States of America had negative attitude towards using spanking on children.

Several researchers have studied the attitude of parents towards use of corporal punishment on their children. Findings indicated that many parents believe in using corporal punishment as a disciplinary method (Gracia & Herero, 2008; Lansford, 2010; Orhon et al., 2006; Qasem, Mustafa, Kazem, & Shah, 1998; Yang, 2009). Yang (2009) studied parental attitudes to corporal punishment in Korea. The findings suggest that the Korean traditional and cultural value that it is the parents' right to discipline their children is supported and most discipline is exercised through physical chastisement. In addition, a study was conducted in Canada to investigate maternal attitudes towards physical discipline and the result showed that 55% of the participants believe that parents who slap their children have the right to do so (Clement & Chamberland, 2009). Moreover, Oveisi et al. (2010) reported that all Iranian mothers in their study believed that one main responsibility of parents was education of their children and 80% of the participants stated that education should involve punishment.

Even in countries that have legally banned use of corporal punishment, some parents have been found to approve its use. For example, Ellonet and colleagues (2015) examined attitudes towards corporal punishment among Finish and Swedish parents (Sweden and Finland are the first countries to ban use of corporal punishment on children). The result of the study showed that 30 years after the ban on corporal punishment, some parents in both Finland and Sweden still show approval of corporal punishment.

Parental approval of corporal punishment has been found to be positively associated with the frequency of corporal punishment that they have experienced during childhood (Deckard et al., 2003; Flynn, 1996; Orhon et al., 2006; Rodriguez & Sutherland, 1999; Sclar & Stein, 1995). In addition, holding favourable attitudes towards corporal punishment has been consistently identified as the factor that influences parental use of corporal punishment (Frias–Armenta,

Stamavor-Petterson, Covral-Verdugo, & Castell-Ruiz, 2004; Guttman, Lazar, & Markhoul, 2009; Oveis et al., 2010; Pinderhughes, Dodge, Bates, Pettit & Zelli, 2000; Sclar & Stein, 1995; Vitrupp et al., 2006). Cappa and Dam (2014) found that Vietnamese children whose caregivers think that corporal punishment is a necessary child-rearing practice were three times more likely to be exposed to physical punishment than children whose caregivers did not think physical punishment was necessary.

In sum, corporal punishment is a widely accepted disciplinary practice around the world, and based on many findings it appears that parental approval of corporal punishment can explain the reason behind parents' use of it as a disciplinary method.

2.4. Effects of Corporal Punishment

Different scholars maintain that corporal punishment is a very controversial issue (Baumrind et al., 2002; Holden et al., 1999). There are group of intellectuals who argue that corporal punishment is an ineffective way of disciplining a child with long-lasting negative impacts (Lytton, 1997; Straus, Sugarman & Giles-Sims, 1997). Extensive research reports show that corporal punishment is associated with adverse mental health, physical health, developmental and behavioural outcomes across the life span (Afifi, Brownridge, Cox, & Sareen, 2006; Durrant & Ensom, 2012). In a study conducted by Aucoin, Frick, and Bodin (2006), the relationship between corporal punishment and children's behavioural and emotional adjustment problems was examined. The result showed that the group that had experienced corporal punishment had much more adjustment problems than the group that had not experienced corporal punishment. In another study by Gamez-Guadix and colleagues (2010), it was indicated that corporal punishment was associated with antisocial traits and behaviours.

According to Knox (2010), corporal punishment is detrimental to a child's well-being and is associated with aggression and acting out behaviour in children. She also stated that when a parent hits his or her child, the child may wind up imitating the behaviour, which leads to the child becoming more willing to hit others. In addition, Korb and Dang (2013) contend that corporal punishment did not teach children reasons to behave correctly; instead, it taught children to devise methods to avoid detection of their misconduct. Moreover, it appears to increase a child's risk of experiencing physical abuse (Zolotor, Theodor, Chang, Berkoff, & Runyan, 2008; Helinan, Kelli, & Watt, 2015).

Gershoff (2002) conducted a meta-analysis to look at corporal punishment and 11 child behaviours and experiences. Results showed that, although corporal punishment resulted in greatly immediate compliance, it was also related to a large number of negative behaviours. These include increased antisocial behaviour, increased risk of being victim of child abuse, increased risk of being perpetrator of abuse as an adult, increased aggression, and decreased quality of the parent-child relationship. A study also reported that aggressive and criminal behaviours are associated with having experienced corporal punishment as a child (Kocur, Miller, & Perrin, 2009).

More recently, Gershoff and Grogan-Kaylor (2016) conducted a meta-analysis on parents' use of spanking and child outcomes. Among the 17 child outcomes they examined, thirteen were found to be significantly associated with parents' use of spanking. The study indicated that among the outcomes in childhood, spanking was associated with more aggression, more antisocial behaviour, more externalizing problems, more internalizing problems, more mental health problems, and more negative relationship with parents. Moreover, spanking was

found to be significantly associated with lower moral internalization, lower cognitive ability, and lower self-esteem (Gershoff & Grogan-Kaylor, 2016).

On the contrary, there are also scholars who support the use of corporal punishment. For such researchers, if corporal punishment is used appropriately in certain conditions, it can be beneficial for children. For example, Lazalere (1996, 2000) found that mild and occasional spanking under certain conditions was positively associated with children's immediate compliance; whereas it was negatively associated with children's oppositional and antisocial behaviours. In addition, Lazalere (2000) suggested that corporal punishment is effective and appropriate for children aged 2-6 years if it is not overly severe and if it is used in a controlled manner. Moreover, Baumrind (1996) argued that spanking, defined as hitting a child with an open hand without causing a bruise, is effective in immediate curtailment of the child's misbehaviour.

The proponents of corporal punishment have refuted several studies that reported the detrimental effects of corporal punishment and have criticized the methodologies or conclusions of the studies. Concerning this, Baumrind (1996) argued that correlation does not demonstrate causation; thus, studies with a positive correlation between corporal punishment and child aggression or delinquent behaviour should not be used to oppose spanking.

In sum, regarding the debate about the negative and positive outcomes of corporal punishment, while there is a substantial amount of research that has found negative outcomes; a few studies support its use.

2.5. Theories Explaining the Use of Corporal Punishment

A comprehensive explanation of parents' use of corporal punishment cannot be provided by a specific theory. There are different theories that can explain the phenomenon. Two theories that can explain corporal punishment use and its approval are presented in this section.

2.5.1 Social Cognitive Theory

Social cognitive theory is one of the theories that may explain parental use of corporal punishment. This theory is also known as intergenerational transmission of violence.

Social cognitive theory was developed by Albert Bandura. According to Bandura (1977), children learn to use and value violence by observing and modeling their parents' behaviour. Since those who use physical force are not punished but rewarded for their actions (i.e., gain control of the behaviour of others), then observers will be more likely to employ such tactics in interaction with others (Bandura, 1977).

For Van Ijzendoorn (1992), intergenerational transmission is defined as the process through which, purposively or unintentionally, an early generation psychologically influences parenting attitudes and behaviour of the next generation.

Various studies have indicated a relationship between parents' discipline practices and their childhood discipline experience (Deater Deaker, Lansford, Dodge, Pettit, & Bates, 2003; Fry, 1993; Rodriguez & Sutherland, 1999). Adults who experienced corporal punishment during their childhood are more likely to physically punish their own children (Frias-Armenta, 2002; Rodriguez & Sutherland, 1999). In addition, childhood experience of corporal punishment has been linked to approval of using such practice (Buntain-Ricklefs, Kemper, Bell, & Babonis, 1994). Adults who experienced spanking in childhood are more accepting of the use of similar form of punishment (Bower-Russa, Knutson, & Winebarger, 2001; Graziano & Namaste, 1990).

Muller, Hunter, and Stollak (1995) examined two models regarding the intergenerational transmission of corporal punishment. The model based on social learning theory suggests that corporal punishment influences aggressive child behaviour. The other model based on temperament theory suggests that aggressive child behaviour is the cause of parental use of corporal punishment. This study used 732 fathers and 804 mothers who were parents of 983 college students. The result of the study indicated that the model based on the social learning theory was most consistent with the data. This means there was more data supporting the idea that children learn behaviour by observing the behaviour of their parents.

Another study (Chy-In, Conger, Simons, & Whitebeck, 1991) also found that there was direct relationship between grand parents' use of corporal punishment and their adult children's use of it. This study also suggested that individuals who are exposed to harsh parenting practices were more likely to develop a belief that parenting practices should include the use of physical discipline.

More recently, Wang and Xing (2014) examined intergenerational patterns in the transmission of parental corporal punishment and moderating effects of the spouses' use of discipline on these patterns in China. The study used 761 father-mother dyads. The participants reported their experience of corporal punishment in childhood and their current use of discipline toward children. The result showed that corporal punishment was transmitted across generations and the strength of transmission was stronger for mild corporal punishment than for severe corporal punishment. The result also indicated that the intergenerational transmission of corporal punishment is moderated by the spouse's discipline.

In addition to this, another study by Wang, Xing, and Zhao (2014) also examined whether early exposure to corporal punishment as children would affect Chinese parents' use of

corporal punishment with their own children. The participants were 635 father-mother dyads. The result of the study showed that mothers of daughters were more likely to use corporal punishment that was similar to their grandmothers' discipline and fathers of sons were more likely to use corporal punishment similar to their grandfathers' discipline.

Based on the above studies, it appears that there is evidence to suggest that many parents take their use of and favourable attitude towards corporal punishment from their own corporal punishment experience during childhood.

2.5.2. Ecological Theory

Bronfenbrenner (1979) proposed an ecological model of human development that conceptualized the environment and its relationship to the individual at four levels of influence: the microsystem, consisting of the environment in which the individual directly interacts; the mesosystem, the subgroup of microsystem in which the individual is found; the exosystem, which involves the larger social structures that interact with and inevitably affect the mesosystems that the individual is part of; and the macrosystems, or the overarching patterns of culture or subculture. According to this theory, parental use of corporal punishment/child abuse is considered to be a phenomenon that is determined by multiple factors (Belsky, 1980).

The ecological model has been modified by Belsky (1980). Belsky adopted Bronfenbrenner's ecological model by retaining three of the four levels, the microsystem, exosystem, and macrosystem and added fourth level, the ontogenic level.

The model of Belsky (1980) provides a framework that can be used to understand and predict the occurrence of abusive incidents or patterns and corporal punishment. In this model, the ontogenic level includes individual characteristics associated with the abuser that contribute to or reduce the likelihood of maltreatment. The microsystem consists of those aspects of the

family that may influence the likelihood of maltreatment. Within the microsystem, child and parental factors interact to influence the probability of abuse. The exosystem involves factors related to community and social influences that may affect the likelihood of maltreatment. The macrosystem consists of cultural factors that may influence the likelihood of maltreatment like societal norms.

According to Grogan-Kaylor and Otis (1007), the ecological theory provides the framework to develop a complete picture of the nature of corporal punishment with the inclusion of factors that underscore the dynamic relationship between people and their environment. Belsky's (1980) model organizes these factors by four levels. These factors can be seen as individual factors (such as child gender, child age, child misbehaviour, parent's gender, parent's age, parent's education level, parent's childhood history), family factors (such as family size, family income, marital status, marital violence), community factors (such as unemployment , poverty, substance abuse, ethnicity, place of residence), societal factors (such as religion, culture, belief).

The ecological model has been adopted by different researchers to explain the use of corporal punishment on children (Day, Peterson, & McCracken, 1998; Grogan-Kaylor & Otis, 2007; Muller, 1996) and child maltreatment (Sidebotham & Heron, 2003; Tang, 2006; World Health Organization, 2002).

This researcher believes that the ecological model can be a useful theoretical tool to explain parental use of and attitude toward corporal punishment under the Ethiopian context. Although corporal punishment is the result of the complex interplay of multiple factors, this study will focus on some of the factors from the ecological model. Accordingly, individual factors (parent's age, gender, and educational level; child's age, gender), family factor (such as

family size), community factor (place of residence) will be explored to explain parental use of and attitude toward corporal punishment on children. In the following section, brief review of these factors is presented.

2.6. Factors Associated with Corporal Punishment

Understanding the factors associated with the usage of and attitude toward corporal punishment by parents is crucial to the development of intervention and prevention strategies. In this section, an attempt has been made to review the relevant literature regarding the relation of corporal punishment with parent characteristics such as parental gender, age, educational level; and child characteristics such as child's gender, age; family characteristic such as family size, and community characteristic that is area of residence.

2.6.1 Gender of Parents

Numerous studies were conducted so as to check whether parental gender has an influence in parents' use of disciplinary methods in general and corporal punishment in particular. Most studies report that the gender of the parent is often associated with use of corporal punishment with mothers reporting more frequent use (Day et al., 1998; Dietz, 2000; Lansford et al., 2010; Nobes et al., 1999; Sanapo & Nakamura, 2011; Straus & Stewart, 1999; Tang, 2006; Xu, Tung, & Dunaway, 2000). Guttman, Lazar, and Makhoul (2009) looked at parent's gender and the actual use of physical punishment in 50 Christian Arab families in Israel. They found that mothers used physical punishment much more than fathers did.

However, research has also indicated that the corporal punishment used by a father has been found more likely to be harsher and harmful than by a mother (Jackson, 2002) and though

mothers were found to use more frequent corporal punishment, it was the fathers whom the children feared more (Guttmann et al., 2009).

On the other hand, there are some studies that have found no significant difference between fathers' and mothers' frequency of using corporal punishment on their children. Holden et al. (1999) examined 42 American fathers and mothers with respect to their rate of use of corporal punishment and they found that there was no difference in the practice of corporal punishment between mothers and fathers. In the UK, Nobes and Smith (1997) found no significant difference between mothers and fathers in the use of corporal punishment. In addition, Nobes et al. (1999) studied 465 British fathers and mothers and they found no significant difference between fathers' and mothers' rate of their use of corporal punishment.

Regarding approval of corporal punishment as a disciplining method, studies conducted on general population indicated that males have higher support for corporal punishment than do females (Flynn, 1998; Straus & Mathur, 1996). On the other hand, Qasem et al. (1998) found Kuwaiti fathers and mothers to be equally in agreement on the use of corporal punishment on children as a disciplinary method.

Based on the above review, it appears that mothers use more frequent corporal punishment than fathers. Straus and Donnelly (1993) have argued that given the fact that mothers spend more time with their children than fathers, it is expected that they will have more opportunities to use corporal punishment. In addition, Tang (2000) suggested that the main reason behind Chinese mothers' use of physical methods more frequently than fathers' is that they spend more time with children at home.

2.6.2 Parents' Age

Considerable research has been done on the relationship between parental age and the attitude and use of corporal punishment. Several findings indicated that younger parents are more likely to use corporal punishment than older parents (Cappa & Dam, 2014; Combs-Ormea & Cain, 2008, Day et al., 1998, Gebara, Ferri, Bhna, Vieira, Lourenco, & Noto, 2016; Giles-Sims, Straus, & Sugarman, 1995; Straus & Stewart, 1999; Xu et al., 2000). In a recent study that involved six European countries namely Bulgaria, Germany, Lithuania, Netherlands, Romania, and Turkey, parents who reported using corporal punishment were found to be on average younger in age (duRivage et al., 2015).

The relationship between age and approval rates of corporal punishment has also been examined. Straus and Mathur (1996) examined approval rates in the general population from 1968 to 1994 and found that older respondents reported higher approval of corporal punishment. In addition, a public attitude survey in Newzeland (Carswell, 2001) which involved 1000 participants aged 18 years old and over has shown that 90% of participants aged 60 years and above were in favour of smacking while only about 60% of young participants aged 18-29 supported the use of smacking as a disciplinary method.

As has been noted earlier, younger parents are more likely to use corporal punishment on their children than older parents. Scholars have given explanation for the greater use of corporal punishment by young parents over older parents. For Day et al. (1998), parent's use of corporal punishment declines as they become older because they become more educated and have learned from the experiences life has given them. Another explanation is that due to lack of parenting experience, younger parents are more likely to use corporal punishment than older parents (Gershoff, 2002; Tang, 2006). In relation to this, Culp and colleagues (1999) studied

first-time young mothers with toddlers. The result showed that among these young mothers, many of the mothers who used corporal punishment used it in response to behaviours that are typical and appropriate for the age of their children, such as when their toddlers said 'no'. In addition to this, alcohol abuse and economic difficulties were considered to be factors associated with the greater use of corporal punishment by younger parents (Straus & Stewart, 1999).

2.6.3 Educational Level of Parents

Studies on the relationship between parents' educational level and corporal punishment have revealed an inverse relationship. That is, parents with lower levels of education reported higher rates of corporal punishment use as well as positive attitude towards it (Dietz, 2000, Gebara et al., 2016; Guttman et al., 2009; Hunter et al., 2000).

Jocson, Alampay, and Lansford (2012) examined the relation of education, authoritarian child-rearing attitudes, and endorsement of corporal punishment to Filipino parents' reported use of corporal punishment. They collected data from 117 mothers and 98 fathers when their children were eight years old, and again a year later. The result showed that, among others, higher education predicted lower authoritarian attitude, which in turn predicted lower reports of corporal punishment use. Among fathers, higher education predicted lower endorsement of corporal punishment, which in turn predicted lower reports of its use. This suggests that less-educated parents have limited knowledge of child-rearing methods, are less able to manage difficult parenting situations, or have less awareness of the negative consequences associated with the use of corporal punishment (Dietz, 2000).

2.6.4 Gender of Child

Most research in the area of corporal punishment has shown that there are differences between girls and boys with respect to their experience of corporal punishment. Findings indicated that boys experience parental use of corporal punishment more frequently than girls (Day et al., 1998; Dietz, 2000; Lansford et al., 2010; Lee, Perron, Taylor, & Guterman, 2011; Mahoney, Donnelly, Lewis, & Maynard, 2000; Straus & Stewart, 1999; Tang, 2006; Tajma & Harachi, 2010).

There are different explanations for this gender difference. Straus (1994) suggests that boys tend to be more aggressive and misbehave than girls; hence they receive corporal punishment more frequently than girls. Cultural expectation is also considered to be another reason for the gender difference. According to Straus (1994), boys are expected to turn into violent, tough and aggressive men who can physically defend themselves; therefore boys receive more frequent corporal punishment to make them tougher for self-defense. In addition, a study conducted on Filipino parents indicated that there is a social tendency to use harsher discipline methods on boys to prepare them to be strong and tough in the future (Sanapo & Nakamura, 2011).

2.6.5 Age of Child

Several studies found that younger children tend to experience parental corporal punishment more frequently than older children (Dietz, 2000, Grogan- Kayler & Otis 2007, Hunter et al., 2000; Nobes & Smith, 1997).

More frequent use of corporal punishment with younger children than older children may be linked to parental beliefs regarding the appropriateness of corporal punishment use. Studies have indicated that parents view corporal punishment more appropriate for preschool children and less appropriate for older children (Flynn, 1998; Socolar & Stain, 1995; Tang, 2006). A

study of university students in America found spanking of children 3 and 4 years and 7 to 8 years is more acceptable than spanking of teenaged children (Flynn, 1998).

2.6.6 Child Misbehaviour

Child misbehavior has been found to be one of the factors that influence parental use of corporal punishment. Muller (1996) identified behaviours such as aggression, fighting, disobeying, and lying to be possible predictors of parents' use of corporal punishment on their children. Many studies showed that children with externalizing behavior problems were more likely to experience corporal punishment (Grogan-Kaylor & Otis, 2007; Kim, Guo, Koh, & Cain, 2010; Khoury-Kassabry & Straus, 2011; Lee, Kim, Taylor, & Perron, 2011; Tang, 2006).

In a survey conducted to study corporal punishment use by parents, disobedience and non-compliance were found to be child behaviours associated with frequent spanking of children by parents (Graziyano & Hamblen, 1996). In addition, Hunter et al. (2000) found that disobedience was significantly associated with harsh physical discipline in India. Qasem et al. (1998) surveyed 321 parents to study their attitude towards using physical punishment and found that behaviours such as not washing hands before eating, poor performance in school, disobedience, dangerous behaviour, fighting, lying, using bad language, driving without license, smoking, stealing, and drug abuse were the reasons given by parents for their corporal punishment use.

2.6.7. Family Size

Family size has been identified as one of the family factors that influence parental use of corporal punishment. Straus and Stewart (1999) found that family composition and size are correlated with corporal punishment, where single-parent families and parents of larger families were found to practice corporal punishment more than two-parent families and smaller families.

Other studies also showed that larger family size increases parental rate of using corporal punishment on their children (Abolfotouh, El-Bourgy, Seif El-Din, & Mehanan, 2009; Day et al., 1998; Gage & Silvester, 2010; Koury-Kassabury & Straus, 2011; Nobes & Smith, 2002; Qasem et al., 1998; Youssef, Attia, & Kamel, 1998a). According to Gage and Silvestre (2010), large family, which could have diluted parental resources and energy and lowered attachment to children, is a risk factor for the use of physical punishment. Moreover, larger number of children has been found to be associated with parental stress and this could lead parents to use corporal punishment on their children (Dietz, 2000; Straus & Stewart, 1999).

2.6.8 Area of Residence

One community factor associated with parental approval and use of corporal punishment is the area in which the parents are living. The community environment in which parents are living may influence their parenting practices and their response to children's behaviour. In the United States, Flynn (1994) examined regional differences in attitudes about physical punishment in 978 individuals who completed questionnaires and found that participants from the Northeast had less favourable views of corporal punishment than those from other regions. Kovess-Mafety and Colleagues (2016) examined the impact of parental regions of birth on negative parenting behaviour in France. In their study, parents' region of birth was grouped into Caribbean or African, Maghreb, and Western regions. The result indicated that there was high prevalence of punitive attitude among mothers from the Caribbean/African group while mothers from the Maghreb region were more similar to French natives. Research has also examined variations in the use of and approval of corporal punishment among rural and urban participants. These studies report that rural families have higher rates (Alhyahri & Goodman, 2008; Cage & Silvester, 2010; Cappa & Dam, 2014; Ellison & Bradshaw, 2009; Giles-Sims et al., 1995; Hunter

et al., 2000). Cappa and Dam (2014) examined disciplinary methods used on children at home in Vietnam. They found that participants from the urban areas were less likely to favour corporal punishment use. In Yemen, the use of corporal punishment was found to be more severe and common in rural areas compared to urban areas (Alhyahri & Goodman, 2008). In addition, a study conducted in Ethiopia (Dereje et al., 2014) reported that parents in rural and urban communities differently view the potential and real effects of child corporal punishment.

2.7. Culture and Corporal Punishment

Culture has been defined by different scholars. For Bornstein (2012) culture is conceived of as the set of distinctive patterns of beliefs and behaviours that are common to a group of people and that assist the people to regulate their daily life activities.

The beliefs and behaviours in a certain culture shape how parents care for their children. With regard to this, Fontes (2002, p. 35) pointed out that “Child rearing is highly influenced by ethnic culture. What children need to learn and the methods considered best for teaching them are passed down from one generation to another as cultural knowledge.”

Several studies reported the presence of cultural variations in beliefs about child-rearing and disciplinary practices. Such studies affirm that group of people hold different beliefs and engage in different behaviours that may be normative in their culture but are not necessarily normative in another culture (Bornstein, 2009). Furthermore, Bornstein and Lansford (2009) suggest that each country has its own distinctive cultural norm regarding child care and discipline. According to them, parental behaviours viewed as abusive in one society may be interpreted as appropriate discipline in another cultural context.

Such cultural variations, for instance, are manifested by studies that reported differences between Eastern and Western cultures with respect to parental beliefs about children’s and

misbehaviours and the way how to discipline children. Eastern cultures (such as China, Japan, and Korea) emphasize a close bond within the family, interdependence, and mutual obligation; the Western cultures emphasize independence, autonomy, and self-sufficiency of the individual members of the family (Gill & Dewes cited in Son, Lee, Ahn, & Doan, 2017). Moreover, in Eastern cultures, children are considered as the sum of all the generations of their family and as members of a family unit and they are expected to be obedient, respectful, and humble, whereas in Western cultures the child is respected as an individual and as member of the society (McGoldrie, Giorian, & Gracia Preto, cited in Son et al., 2017).

Parents in different cultures have certain expectations regarding how their children should behave. Usually, physical punishment is used when children violate these expectations (Lin, 2018). For example, in China, where filial piety or devotion to the family is emphasized, children must obey their parents irrespective of how unreasonable their demands are, or how harshly they are treated; and confirm their parents' requirements are satisfied (O'Brain & Lau, 1995). Because of this, parents in Eastern culture are more likely to use physical discipline than parents in Western culture. In relation to this, Ngiam and Tung (2016) suggest that in many Asian countries, the use of physical discipline is considered to be the most effective form of discipline to instill children's compliance and respect. Moreover, the Korean proverb "the dearer the child, the sharper must be the rod" may illustrate that discipline based on corporal punishment is culturally supported and it is more often used in Eastern culture (Back et al., 2003).

It has also been found that the effect of corporal punishment depends on the cultural context in which it takes place. This may be because the effect may depend on the extent to which the discipline techniques are normative within a culture (Deater-Deakart & Dodge, 1997).

In their cross-cultural study of corporal punishment in mother-child dyads in six countries (China, India, Italy, Kenya, the Philippines, and Thailand), Lansford et al. (2005) reported that the cultural normativeness of corporal punishment moderates the association between children's experiencing such punishment and their associated aggression and anxiety. Accordingly, more-frequent use of corporal punishment is less strongly associated with adverse child outcomes in countries where such punishment is more normative (Lansford et al., 2005). The study showed that in cultures where physical discipline is viewed as normative, its association with children's anxiety and aggressive behaviour is relatively weak, whereas in cultures where corporal punishment is rarely used, its association with children's poor adjustment is stronger (Lansford et al., 2005).

A more recent study by Davidov and Khoury-Kassabri (2013) also reported a similar result. Davidov and Khoury-Kassabri studied the role of culture in the association between recollections of corporal punishment experienced during childhood and levels of depressive symptoms in early adulthood. The participants were Jewish and Arab university students. They found that the culture of the participants moderated the links between corporal punishment and depression.

Furthermore, the effect of discipline may depend on the perception of children and parents regarding the normativeness of the discipline techniques used. For example, when children perceive a discipline technique to be normative within their culture and community, they may be less likely to consider it unacceptable when it is used by their parents (Grusec & Goodnow, 1994) and there may be no association between that type of discipline and children's adjustment problems (Rohner, Kean, & Cournoyer, 1991). On the other hand, if a discipline technique is perceived by children to be non normative, it is more likely to be ineffective (Grusec

& Goodnow, 1994) and could be related to higher levels of problem behaviours (Rohner et al., 1991).

To sum up, there is cultural variation in belief about and use of physical discipline. Moreover, the literature suggests that cultural normativeness has a crucial role in moderating the effect of corporal punishment on children.

2.8. Ban on Corporal Punishment

It has been indicated that corporal punishment is a widely used form of disciplining children in many countries around the world. However, for many human right advocates, it is a human rights violation (Gershoff & Bitensky, 2007). Consequently, protecting children against violence has become a main concern for international organizations and many governments; and it has been incorporated in major treaties such as the Convention on the Rights of the Child (Lansford et al., 2016).

In 1989, Article 19 of the United Nations Convention on the Right of the Child gave children the right to be reared without violence. In addition, different human rights bodies have demanded their member countries to prohibit corporal punishment in all settings. Accordingly, numerous countries have initiated a ban on all forms of corporal punishment on children. Sweden was the first country to ban all forms of corporal punishment in 1979. Currently, 53 countries have prohibited all forms of corporal punishment at all settings (Global Initiative to End All Corporal Punishment of Children, 2018).

Several studies have claimed that the ban on corporal punishment has helped to bring change on both the attitude and behaviour of parents. For instance, studies in Sweden reported the success of the ban on reducing violent child rearing practices and attitudinal changes towards use of corporal punishment (Durrant, 1999; Janson, 2005). The percentage of adults who profess

positive attitudes towards spanking has declined from over 50% in the 1970s before the ban to close to 10% in 2000 (Janson, 2005). Moreover, Germany banned the use of all corporal punishment on children in 2000. An evaluative study of the ban conducted by Bussmann (2004) found that the ban has had a significant positive change on children's well-being.

In addition, a study of five Western European countries; Austria, France, Germany, Spain, and Sweden indicated that prohibiting corporal punishment does lead to a reduction in the use of violence (Bussmann, Erthal, & Schroth, 2011). The study showed that parents in countries with legal ban apply less corporal punishment, and their childrearing is shaped more by nonviolent behaviour compared with countries without a legal ban. Moreover, the study revealed that rates of corporal punishment varied both as a function of legal prohibition and presence of campaigns that propagate the negative effects of corporal punishment. The highest rates of corporal punishment were found in France, followed by Spain, countries which had not outlawed corporal punishment at the time of the study. The lowest rates of corporal punishment were in Sweden, followed by Germany, and Austria, countries which had outlawed corporal punishment (Bussmann et al., 2011). The difference in rates among these countries was attributed to public awareness campaign following the legal ban.

Zolotor and Puzia (2010) reviewed evidence from the first 24 countries that legally banned corporal punishment and concluded that legal bans were associated with decreases in support and use of corporal punishment. Moreover, in their comparison of six European countries (Bulgaria, Germany, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Romania, and Turkey), duRivaget et al. (2015) reported that parents in countries where corporal punishment is legal were 1.7 times more likely to report use of corporal punishment.

Nevertheless, it is not clear that the legal prohibition is the cause for the change in attitude and behaviour. A multi-national European study of adult attitudes in seven countries suggests that the legality of corporal punishment in a country did not influence the belief of participants in using corporal punishment (Sajkowska, cited in Zolotor & Puzia, 2010). In this study, adult participants were asked about their belief regarding the appropriateness of parental use of corporal punishment. The result indicated that respondents from countries where corporal punishment was illegal didn't seem to differ in their reported beliefs from respondents in countries where corporal punishment was legal.

In addition, though Zolotor and Puzia (2010) indicated legal bans are closely associated with a decrease in support of and use of corporal punishment, they were not able to make sure what generally preceded- the legislative bans or the decline in popular support for corporal punishment. In Sweden, the society began changing its attitudes towards corporal punishment years before the country outlawed corporal punishment and some argued that there is no evidence of causality in this change due to the ban (Roberts, 2000).

Straus (2010) explained that the legal prohibition alone may not be the cause to the reduction of corporal punishment. According to him, it is difficult to determine this because a decrease in corporal punishment following the enactment of a legal prohibition may simply reflect the continued effect of a preexisting set of causes that led to the legal change. Moreover, research findings emphasize the fact that legislation alone is not sufficient to change attitudes or behaviours and must be assisted by parental education, support, and guidance (Sidebotham, 2015).

In addition, Lansford et al. (2016) studied the change over time in parents' beliefs about and reported use of corporal punishment in countries with and without legal bans. They found

that in some countries that have legally banned corporal punishment, many caregivers continued to believe in the necessity of using corporal punishment and reported that their children continued to experience corporal punishment. According to the researchers, this suggests that attention should be given to campaigns that promote awareness of legal bans and to educate parents regarding alternative forms of discipline in order to achieve the desired impact in attitude and behaviour. Busmann et al. (2011) also suggested that both legal bans and public awareness campaigns are important in reducing violence against children.

In most African countries, it seems that corporal punishment is traditionally accepted and considered to be the right way of disciplining children. The idea of prohibiting corporal punishment of children is to encourage a change of attitudes and practice and to promote non-violent methods of child rearing (Modig, 2009). However, in its report of Prohibiting All Corporal Punishment of Children in Africa, the Global Initiative to End All Corporal Punishment of Children (2015) indicated that there are individual governments which resist reform, disregard repeated recommendations made by treaty bodies, reject recommendations to prohibit all forms of corporal punishment in all settings, and even openly defend the legality and use of corporal punishment. Consequently, corporal punishment by parents is still legal in many countries. According to Soneson (2005), a complete ban of corporal punishment in many countries around the world has been prevented by children's lack of power and their low status in society.

To conclude, most studies suggest that legal ban of corporal punishment accompanied by awareness campaigns brings positive change in attitude and behaviour. However, parental corporal punishment has not been legally prohibited in many countries around the world.

2.9. Corporal Punishment in School

Besides the home, the school is another setting where corporal punishment is used as a means of child discipline. In a study of 1300 primary school children in Jamaica, 96% of the males and 89% of the females reported that they experienced physical punishment at school (Baker-henningham, Meeks-gardner, Cheng, & Walker, 2009). In a study conducted in Taiwan, over one-fourth of (26%) the boys and 16.3 % of the girls reported having been hit, beaten, or slapped by their teacher (Chen & Wei, 2011). Youssef, Attia, & Kamel (1998b) found that among the study participants, 80% of the males and 62% of the females reported corporal punishment by teachers in middle and high schools in Egypt. In Israel, a study of a nationally representative sample of primary, junior high, and high school students indicated that 25% of students in primary and junior high schools, and 18% in high school experienced physical maltreatment (Khoury-Kassabri, 2006). In India, a study of 519 students found that 62% of the students reported experiencing corporal punishment within the past twelve months (Deb, Kumar, Holden, & Rowe, 2017). The results of such studies confirm that in many countries around the world, children are subjected to physical punishment in their schools.

Research shows that corporal punishment is ineffective in managing students' behaviour in the classroom and it has negative outcomes. In a cross-sectional study in Jamaica, schoolchildren who received one or two types of corporal punishment scored lower in Mathematics and children who received three or more types scored lower on spelling, reading, and Mathematics (Baker-Henningham et al., 2009). It was also indicated that corporal punishment by educational staff has a wide range of detrimental effects on children's psychological well-being leading to feelings of anxiety, depression, hostility, and sadness (Potting & Stair, cited in Koury-Kassbri, 2006). A study by Deb et al. (2016) in India indicated

that the participants who experienced school corporal punishment reported more anxiety and depression. In Uganda, the use of corporal punishment on students was found to be associated with poor mental health and educational performance (Devries et al., 2014). Moreover, a study in India, Peru, Viet Nam, and Ethiopia reported that corporal punishment experienced at age eight was negatively associated with maths scores (Orgando Portela & Pells, 2015). Hence, it can be concluded that using corporal punishment in schools is more detrimental than beneficial for students.

In response to the worldwide movement to end legal approval of corporal punishment in schools, many countries have banned the use of corporal punishment in schools. Currently, 163 countries have legally banned school corporal punishment (Global Initiative to End All Corporal Punishment of Children, 2018). However, studies conducted in countries that have banned it indicated that teachers continued to use corporal punishment in order to maintain students' discipline despite the ban. For example, corporal punishment in schools was legally banned in Kenya in 2001. Nevertheless, a study by Mwery (2010) found that despite the legal ban, school corporal punishment continued to be used by teachers. The study also showed that teachers had the opinion that corporal punishment was the most effective way of disciplining students and they argued that to avoid the pain from corporal punishment, students can respect school rules and avoid bad behaviours (Mwery, 2010). A more recent study to assess perceptions of teachers on the ban of corporal punishment in pre-primary institutions in Kenya (Mwai et al., 2014) showed the use of corporal punishment was perceived positively by most teachers. Moreover, the study indicated that many teachers reported their use of corporal punishment in nearly all types of students' misbehaviour. According to the authors, the heavy-duty placed on teachers by

parents to modify students' moral behaviour can be one of the explanations why the teachers continued to use corporal punishment even after the legal ban (Mwai et al., 2014).

Moreover, after its legal abolishment, teachers continued to use corporal punishment in many states in America (Smith, cited in Onyango & Simatwa, 2016) and in Australia (Bristed, cited in Onyango & Simatwa, 2016). In South Africa, although corporal punishment has been abolished, it is not all the schools that have been abided by the ban (Maree cited in Ntuli & Machaisa, 2014). According to Devries et al. (2014), despite its ban in 1997, the use of corporal punishment on students is widespread in Uganda. Orgando Portela and Pells (2015) also reported that despite legal prohibition, school corporal punishment is highly prevalent in India, Peru, Viet Nam, and Ethiopia.

In short, the literature shows that despite its association with negative outcomes, corporal punishment continues to be used as a method of disciplining students in many countries around the world.

2.10. Corporal Punishment in Ethiopia

Ethiopia, like most countries in Africa, is a multi-ethnic, multi-religious, and multi-cultural society. In traditional Ethiopian society, the family forms the smallest social institution. This institution is inhabited by a father, a mother, and their children. The father is considered like a king, an all-knowing autocrat whose words are final. He transmits what he knows to his wife and children. The mother and the children are passive receivers of his knowledge. The mother serves as a middle woman and she occupies the next dominant place to the father.

Since rearing children is a culturally oriented practice, understanding the cultural view and attitude of raising and nurturing children is vital for effective child welfare practices.

Metaphors are powerful in influencing societal attitudes and beliefs. Proverbs can tell us much about the values of the Ethiopian culture and the place of the Ethiopian child.

Like every nation in Africa and the world, Ethiopians have their own set of proverbs and wise sayings. Some of such proverbs and popular sayings reflect the Ethiopians' view by manifesting their beliefs and attitudes towards children. With this general view in mind, I will try to present a bird's-eye view of the societal view about children and child disciplinary practices in Ethiopia using some proverbs from Amharic, Tigary, Oromo, Wolayta, Silte, and Harari languages that are taken from Daniel (1992), Moges (1958), Abdurrahman (1969), Masresha, Abraham & Fikre (2014), Hussien and Awol (2002), and Abdurahman (1991), respectively.

Ethiopians consider children as gifts of God that strengthen the marriage bond and keep the continuation of generations. Hence, the Amharic saying “ልጁን አንሸው ምጡን እርሻው፡፡” [forget the labour pain and bring up the child.] Children are also regarded as decorative gifts from God that can glitter the home of the parents. A house in which no child is born is seen to lack God's blessing. Being childless is considered the worst fate of a family. Thus, the Silte proverb “ወለድ ያለቢ ጋር በፊታ፡፡” [A house with a child is beautiful]. Similar proverbs exist in other Ethiopian languages, too.

Ethiopian traditions stress that parents are the first teachers of their children, instructing them to behave in appropriate ways. It seems that Ethiopian parents and the community as a whole underestimate children's ability to learn something new and do things by themselves. The following proverbs and their explanations will lend credence to this claim.

“ልጅ ይሮጣል አንጅ አባቱን አይቀድምም” an Amharic proverb which literally means [A child may run, but cannot surpass his/her father]. A similar Tigrian proverb states: “ቈልዓስ ይጎዩ እምበር አይቅድምን” [A child may run, but cannot beat.]. This refers to the idea that a child can't perform a

task that cannot be performed by his father or elder. So under such conditions, the child may grow with the view that he/she can't know something that is not known to his/her parents. This may foster dependency on others for the sake of getting knowledge of whatsoever. It may also cause lack of self – confidence on the part of the child as he/she grows and faces the reality in the world outside home.

Another proverb which shows a similar logic with the earlier one is “*ልጅ ያበካው ለራት አይበቃም*” It translates literally [A dough kneaded by a child is not sufficient for dinner]. This reflects the inferior place given to the child in the society. A child who grew up under such condition learns that whatever he/she achieves cannot be compared with the achievement of elders. This may limit the mental horizon of the child to his/her family, society, or locality alone. He/she can't have a vision of improving the existing situation by him/herself. This too may erode the self-confidence of the child.

There is an Amharic proverb that further supports the perceived irrelevance of children in knowledge production “*ልጅ ለናጉ ምጥ አስተማረች*” [A child (daughter) teaches her mother about labour]. This is usually said whenever a child tries to do something new. This clearly demonstrates the fact that the child is expected to accept what is told or done by his/her parent without questioning. The child is considered as a passive object, an empty jar to be filled with his parents' or elders' knowledge. Due to this, children may develop dependence, passivity, and lack of confidence.

“*የልጅ ነገር ሁለት ፍሬ ነው አንዱ ጠሰል አንዱ ጥሬ*” [The word (matter) of a child is of two types; one is meaningful, the other is raw]. This Amharic proverb refers to the idea that complete information or knowledge is unexpected from a child. Whatever comes from a child is considered to be partially right and partly wrong or controversial. This shows that whatever new

information and invention or achievement a child may bring, it will have a limited place in the mind of parents and elders. This may prevent the child from exploring his/her environment actively. It may force the child to accept the lower position in the construction of knowledge. As he/she grows, the child may develop a feeling of inferiority or incompetence. Such a child may need the support and confirmation of others to his/her achievements. This may induce lack of independent thinking on the part of the individual who is growing up under such conditions.

An Oromo proverb which states “ጆሌን ገራን ነዳኩሉ መሌ ቁራ እንቢይቱ” [Children only know complaints about stomachache but not about satiation] also tells us that children cannot reason cause and effect. Another Oromo maxim states “ጆላ ሐልከን ኢፋ ጆሌን አዲ ሴቱ” [Children take the moon’s light for that of the sun]. A Silte proverb strengthens this idea when it asserts “ሎልድ አንጭር እንደት መሬክ ትመስለያት” “The child considers his short mother as his friend.” This is indicative of the fact that children are regarded as creatures with no or little capacity of critical thinking. “ዋን ወሪ ዋሪ ዱብቱ ጆሌን ዋሪ ዱብቱ” [What the family talked at night; the children will reveal during the day]. This Afan Oromo proverb implies that children naturally have the tendency to divulge secrets.

It seems that children are also considered to be irresponsible. Hence the saying in Amharic and Silte: “ሊጅ ደረሰ ቤት ፈረሰ” “ወልድ ጄጄ ንብር ተፈጄ” literally meaning, [The boy has grown thus the house is in mess]. The same proverbs are also found in various Ethiopian languages. For instance, the Harari proverb “አውመ የሐርሲ ወልዲመ ይማሕሲ” [While the father ploughs/works the child destroys] also conveys the same message.

The basic meaning these proverbs convey is that even if the child has grown up, still he/she is considered to be a source of problems to his/her family due to his/her irresponsible

nature. This kind of parental and communal attitude may have an adverse effect on the psychological makeup of the child.

When we come to the issue of child discipline, Ethiopian maxims and proverbs have a lot to say about the societal attitude towards child treatment and corporal punishment. Parents and the community at large consider it is their responsibility to see that each child is raised appropriately. This notion is illustrated in this Amharic maxim “ልጅን በጡት እህልን በጥቅምት (ማረም)” [Correct your child while he/she is still being breast-fed; weed your crop in October]. A popular Amharic saying goes like this “ለልጅ ጥርስህን ለዝንብ ቁስልህን አታሳይ” [Do not show your smile to a child; your sore to a fly]. The Tigreans who are the northern neighbours of the Amharas have exactly the same proverb which goes “ንቁልዓ ስኒ ንሃመማ ቁስለ ኣይተርኢ” [do not show a smile to a child, sore to a fly]. An Oromo proverb also has it “ጆሌን እቴ ኮፍለን ኮፈ በንቲ” [If one laughs with children, they might reveal one's private parts] and “ጆቱን እልኬ ገርቴ ነመ ኮፈ በንቲ” [If children see a man's teeth, they may incline to reveal his private parts.]

In traditional Ethiopian society, corporal punishment was, and is still, a very acceptable mode of correction for children. In their study in Jimma Zone of Oromiya region, Dereje et al. (2014) noted that parents use proverbs to justify their use of corporal punishment. Two proverbs commonly used by the rural communities were “Ijoollen waagni ishee uleedha” literally means “The god of children (of a child) is stick” and “Utuun gaafaa ulee gate na dhaananii, kophee hin gatuun ture jedhan” which literally means “Had I had been punished when I lost stick [stick for taking care after cattle], I wouldn't have lost shoes” (Dereje et al., 2014). The Wolayitas of southern Ethiopia on their part have proverbs about child disciplinary practices such as “Naatu laggetettay mela shiyan cadisseees” “Punish a child if he/she lies and teach him/her good manners”. Two more Amharic proverbs which show how the society perceives children as

objects to be punished are worth mentioning “*ልጅ የሚበላውን አይጣ እንጂ ዱላ አይገድለውም*” [Beating will not kill a child as long as he has something to eat]. “*ተረግጦ ያደገ ተራራ ይዘላል፣ ሳይቀጡት ያደገ አባቱን ይገላል*” [One who was punished as a kid would jump the mountain; while the unpunished one kills his father]. The Tigrean proverbs “*ቁልዓ ሃራሚኡ ይፈቱ*” meaning [A child loves the one who hits him] and “*ቁልዓን ሰበይትን ወቻሊአም ይፈትው*” [A child and a woman love one who beats them] also belong to this category.

Proverbs reflect a particular community’s philosophy of life and its perceptions and attitudes about the world. The proverbs mentioned above taken from various ethnic groups of Ethiopia, though they are not representative of all ethnic groups, seem to illustrate that the Ethiopian society has attitudes that devalue children and support physical discipline.

Although corporal punishment has been in the society for millennia, it was only recently that it was given some attention and considered as a problem worth investigating by the Ethiopian academic community. The limited surveys and research so far conducted on corporal punishment in Ethiopia largely focused on its nature and prevalence. For instance, a survey of 485 young Ethiopian women of 18-24-year-olds, which focused on their childhood experiences of violence revealed that 84% had experienced one or more types of violence. The most common punishment was being beaten with an object (71.1%). Prevalence figures for other forms of physical abuse were punched (59.5%), kicked (43.3%), followed by being forced to carry out hard work (28.6%), choked/burned/stabbed (12.4%), having spicy/bitter food put into mouth (10.9%), locked up (9.7%), and denied food (8.3%). The most vulnerable to beating with an object were girls aged 10-13 years (59.4%). The same groups were found to be more exposed to hitting/punching when aged 14-17 years (58.4%). Mothers did most of the beating with an object and hitting/punching (45.2% and 27.2% respectively), followed by fathers (39.1% and 21.5%)

and brothers (23.9% and 24%). The survey further revealed that in 55.5% of cases, the hitting/punching brought about bruises or scratches, broken bones or teeth, or bleeding (Stavropoulos, 2006).

Another study conducted in the Somali Regional State of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia reported that as in other parts of the country, corporal punishment is a normal part of daily life in the regional state. This research which involved 47 focus group discussions and 26 interviews with children and adults, showed that corporal punishment was widespread in the region. Empirical findings of this research indicate that 68% of the focus groups discussed parental use of corporal punishment and reported beating as a common way of keeping children in line while 15% of the participant groups reported it was rare and 17% said that it did not happen. The study further revealed that 63% focus groups who discussed the use of corporal punishment by teachers said that beating was the most common form of corporal punishment, 6% said that beating was rare while the remaining 31% reported that it did not happen. According to the study corporal punishment often involved children being beaten with a hand or a stick. Other forms of punishments included shouting at children, pinching them, forcing them to maintain painful positions and forcing them to look at the sun (Lelieveld, 2011).

A recent study conducted in some selected rural and urban communities of Jimma Zone (Dereje et al., 2014) indicates that parents do not conceive child corporal punishment as a violation of children's rights, rather as their cultural responsibility of child nurturing. However, at the international level, 53 nations have implemented bans on the use of physical punishment (Global Initiative to End all Corporal Punishment of Children, 2018) with the intention of protecting the basic human rights of children and to make societal shifts toward no tolerance for violence against children (Taillieu, Affi, Mota, Keyes, & Sareen, 2014).

Corporal punishment of children is unlawful in schools and other institutions under article 36 of the Ethiopian Constitution. However, neither the constitution nor any other law prohibits corporal punishment by parents and other caregivers within the home or in non-institutional forms of alternative care (Dereje et al., 2014).

The Revised Family Code (2000) of Ethiopia states that "The guardian may take the necessary measures for the purpose of ensuring the upbringing of the minor"(article 258). In addition, though article 576 of the Criminal Code (2005) punishes child maltreatment with simple imprisonment not exceeding three months, it further states that "The taking, by parents or other persons having similar responsibilities, of a disciplinary measure that does not contravene the law, for the purposes of proper upbringing, is not subject to this provision." Thus, corporal punishment is lawful at home.

As reported by the Global Initiative to End All Corporal Punishment of Children (2014), different human rights treaty bodies such as the Committee on the Right of the Child (CRC) and the Committee Against Torture (CAT) have given recommendation for the state of Ethiopia to consider the existing legal codes and prohibit all forms of corporal punishment in all settings. It is clearly indicated in this report that the CAT committee recommended that the State Party should consider amending its Criminal Code and Family Code with a view to prohibiting corporal punishment in child-rearing in the home and alternative care settings. Despite these recommendations, the use of corporal punishment by parents is still lawful in the country.

Based on the foregoing discussion, it can be concluded that corporal punishment is a prevalent child disciplining practice in Ethiopia. It seems that traditionally, physical child disciplining is believed to be necessary and useful for the proper upbringing of children. Although the above traditional proverbs are indicative of parental attitude towards corporal

punishment, scientifically-based studies which document parental attitude toward corporal punishment are lacking. Moreover, a little is known about the variables that are associated with the use of corporal punishment and the variables that can predict attitude towards it. Therefore, this study focuses on assessment of parental use of corporal punishment and the variables associated with the prevalence and frequency of its use. It also focuses on assessing parental attitude towards corporal punishment and the variables that predict this attitude.

2.11. Conceptual Framework

The study sought to test the association between variables of interest. Using the ecological systems theory as the basis, the framework conceptualizes the use of and attitude toward corporal punishment as phenomena influenced by multilevel factors. As shown in the model (Fig.1), the selected factors at individual, familial, and community level are expected to be related with parental attitude towards corporal punishment. In addition, these factors are also expected to be associated with the parental use of corporal punishment. It is also expected that attitude towards corporal punishment is associated with its actual use.

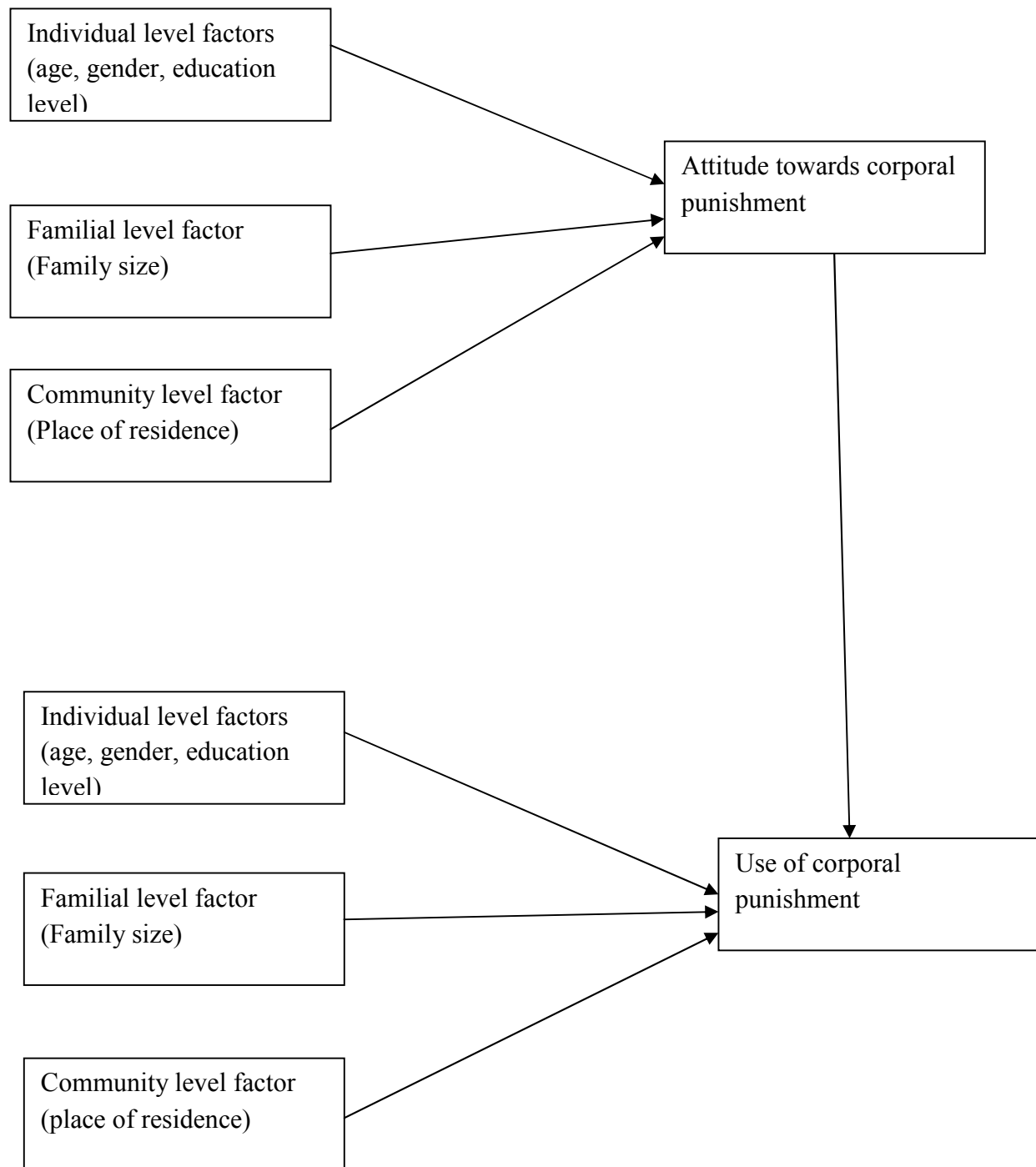


Figure 1. *Conceptual Framework*

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Study Design

This study examined parental use of and attitude toward corporal punishment. A cross-sectional descriptive survey design was used to investigate the issue under question. Descriptive research is used to describe an event, a happening, or to provide a factual and accurate description of the population being studied. It provides the number of times something occurs and helps in determining the descriptive statics about a population, that is, the average number of occurrences or frequency of occurrences (Sing, 2007). In cross-sectional survey design, the researcher collects data at one point in time and the study can examine current attitudes, beliefs opinions, or practices (Creswell, 2012). Therefore, this design was believed to be appropriate to achieve the study objectives.

3.2. The Study Area

The study was conducted on parents living in the northern Ethiopian town of Dessie and rural areas around it. Dessie is the principal urban settlement in the Southern Wollo Zone of the Amhara Regional State. The town is located at 400 kilometers, North East of Addis Ababa, the Ethiopian capital.

Dessie was selected as the study site for two main reasons. First, as someone who was born and brought up in the town, I believed that the use of corporal punishment as a means of maintaining child discipline is a common practice in our culture. Second, I think that one of the major obstacles for a field researcher is the data gathering process. As a native of the area and an

instructor who is currently working in a university located in the town, I believed that the process of data gathering would not be a challenging task.

3.3. Population and Sampling Technique

A population is a group of individuals, objects, or items from among which samples are taken for measurement (Sing, 2007). Parents living in Dessie town and in rural areas around it were the population for the study. Dessie town has ten Kebeles. There are also six rural Kebeles around this town. A Kebele is the smallest administrative unit in Ethiopia. It is similar to a ward, or a district in which localized group of people are living.

A sample is a subgroup of the target population that the researcher plans to study for generalizing about the target population (Creswell, 2012). Due to its high degree of representativeness and high generalizability, the researcher used probability sampling technique. According to Creswell (2012), in probability sampling technique, the researcher selects individuals from the population who are considered to be representative of that population. It is the most precise form of sampling in quantitative research because the researcher can claim that the sample is representative of the population and as such, can make generalization to the population (Creswell, 2012).

In the sampling process, first the researcher stratified the ten Kebeles in Dessie town by location: North (Kebeles 7 and 9), South (Kebeles 1 and 2), Central Dessie (Kebeles 8 and 10), East (Kebeles 3 and 5), and West (Kebeles 4 and 6). Then, from each of these strata, the researcher took one Kebele using lottery method. Accordingly, the sample Kebeles were Kebele 9 from North, Kebele 1 from South, Kebele 10 from Central Dessie, Kebele 5 from East, and Kebele 4 from West of the town. Regarding the selection of participants from rural areas, there are six rural Kebeles around Dessie town. These are Tita, Kurkur, Boru Meda, Boru Silasie,

Gerado Bilen, and Gerado Endodber. Among these rural Kebeles, three Kebeles were randomly selected. These were Boru Meda, Gerado Endodber, and Tita.

A sampling frame is an essential ingredient for probability sampling. It refers to an exhaustive listing of all the elements that make up a research population (Ruane, 2005). The researcher visited each of the selected Kebele offices in Dessie town for obtaining information about the number of parents living in the Kebele. Each Kebele has documents that have complete information regarding each household. However, based on the information obtained from the officials of the Kebele administrations, the list of parents was prepared about ten years ago.

Therefore, it was necessary to have the latest information about the number of parents living in the selected Kebeles in the town to make the sampling frame up-to-date. For this purpose, the researcher consulted with the respective Kebele administrations to get permission to collect the information from each household. With the help of six research assistants, the list of parents from each household for the sampling frame has been identified. A household with at least one parent, whose age was 21 and above years, and a child was included in the list. If a household had no parent or had a parent without a child, it was excluded from the list. Before the research assistants started their work, they were given orientation on the purpose of preparing the list and the inclusion and exclusion criteria. Based on the collected information, the total number of parents living in the selected Kebeles was found to be 7260 (3420 males, 3840 females).

Regarding the list of parents in rural Kebeles, the local Agricultural, Environmental Protection, and Farm Management Office had latest information regarding each household in these rural Kebeles. Accordingly, the total number of parents in the selected rural Kebeles was 4800 (2680 males, 2120 females). Thus, the total number of the target population in urban and rural Kebeles was 12060 (6100 males, 5960 females).

With respect to determining the size of representative samples, Ruane (2005) stated that researchers employ sampling ratios that establish acceptable sample sizes for various population sizes. He further pointed out that, as a general rule, the larger the population size, the smaller the sampling ratio needed to obtain a representative sample. As stated by Ruane, if the study population is 1000, the conventional sampling ratio would need to be 30%, for a population of 10,000 the sampling ratio would be 10%, and for populations of 150,000, a very small sampling ratio (1%) is acceptable. From this, it can be understood that as the target population increases, the sampling ratio decreases. Based on this general rule, the sample size for this study was determined to be 5% of the target population. This means, out of 12060 total number of parents in the sampling frame, the number of parents to be participated in the study was determined to be 603 (5%).

After determining the sample size, the participants were selected from the sampling frame by stratified random sampling technique proportionate to the size of the target population. Table 1 below summarizes the number of participants selected from each of the urban and rural Kebeles.

Table 1: Summary of Number of Participants Selected from the Sampling Frame

| Residence | Sample Kebeles | Target Population | | | Number of Selected Participants | | |
|-----------|------------------|-------------------|--------|-------|---------------------------------|--------|-------|
| | | Male | Female | Total | Male | Female | Total |
| Urban | 01 | 447 | 632 | 1079 | 22 | 32 | 54 |
| | 04 | 577 | 817 | 1394 | 29 | 41 | 70 |
| | 05 | 847 | 687 | 1534 | 42 | 34 | 76 |
| | 09 | 989 | 642 | 1631 | 50 | 32 | 82 |
| | 10 | 560 | 1062 | 1622 | 28 | 53 | 81 |
| Rural | Gerado Endod Ber | 709 | 498 | 1207 | 35 | 25 | 60 |
| | Boru Meda | 951 | 882 | 1833 | 48 | 44 | 92 |
| | Tita | 1020 | 740 | 1760 | 51 | 37 | 88 |
| Total | | 6100 | 5960 | 12060 | 305 | 298 | 603 |

3.4. Data Collection Tool

The data collection tool used in this study was questionnaire. A questionnaire is perhaps the commonest of all psychological measures and it is a useful instrument for collecting survey data (Shaughnessy, Zechmeister, & Zechmeister, 2012). To collect the required data, a close-ended questionnaire was chosen for it can be answered more easily, takes relatively little time, is relatively objective, minimizes scoring problems, and easy to summarize and analyze (Leery, 2001).

In order to develop an appropriate questionnaire, thorough review of the literature was required. Accordingly, the researcher reviewed various studies and scrutinized other questionnaires used in studies on the same area. The Punitive Discipline Scale (Schuetze &

Eiden, 2005), The Parent-Child Conflict Tactics Corporal Punishment subscale (Straus, Hamby, Finkelhor, Moore, & Runyan, 1998), Harsh Discipline Scale (Simons, Whitbeck, Conger, & Chyi-In, 1991), Corporal Punishment Checklist (Hecker, et al., 2014), and Attitudes Toward Spanking Scale (Gagné et al., 2007) were among the questionnaires that were scrutinized. Consequently, a questionnaire that was suitable for the objectives and cultural context of the study was constructed. The questionnaire had the following parts.

The first part of the questionnaire was designed to gather background information of the participants including sex, age, educational level, number of children, and place of residence. The second part was constructed to assess parental use of corporal punishment and consisted of four items. The first item requested parents to indicate whether they have used corporal punishment during the past 12 months. To obtain complete picture of the prevalence of corporal punishment use, information on its frequency was required. Accordingly, the second item was designed to measure the frequency of corporal punishment use within the period of 12 months. The third and fourth items requested parents to indicate the age group and gender of their child who received corporal punishment more frequently within the past 12 months.

To identify the type of corporal punishment commonly used by parents, 12 types of punishment were listed under part three and parents were requested to indicate the type of corporal punishment they have used.

In part four, so as to identify the common child misbehaviours punished by parents, 17 types of child misbehaviours were listed and participants were requested to indicate the type of child misbehaviours they have corporally punished.

In part five, 8 items that reflect attitude toward corporal punishment were listed to assess parents' attitude towards corporal punishment. This part consisted of positively and negatively

keyed items. During scoring, for the positively keyed items, the responses were not changed. For the negatively-keyed items, the responses were reversed. Participants were requested to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement in 5 points Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Since the scale consisted of 8 items, the maximum possible value was 40 indicating attitude in favour of corporal punishment, and the minimum 8, indicating attitude against corporal punishment.

The final part of the questionnaire consisted of two items to assess the views of parents about legal ban on parental use of corporal punishment.

3.5. Pilot Test

After the preparation of the tool, pilot testing was conducted to ensure clarity, specificity, relevance, and appropriateness of the items in line with the purpose of the study. Moreover, determining the reliability of the items was another aim of the pilot test.

Before conducting the pilot test, the questionnaire was translated from English to Amharic by two instructors (MA holders in Teaching Amharic) from Department of Amharic, Wollo University. So as to ascertain the precise meaning of the wordings during translation, the Amharic version was translated back to English by two instructors (PhD holders in Teaching English as a Foreign Language) from English department in the same university. The translation was conducted with utmost care and comparisons were made with the original version. The researcher and the translators evaluated and reviewed each item for discrepancy in wordings. Based on the result of the evaluation, some words were rephrased to ensure equivalence in meaning between the Amharic and English versions and where clarity was lacking, adjustments were made in both versions.

After the instrument was translated, the pilot test was conducted. Accordingly, the Amharic version of the questionnaire was distributed to 30 (17 females & 13 males) respondents who were sampled from Kebeles in both urban and rural areas which were not included in the actual study to avoid contamination of information. Based on the responses of the participants of the pilot study, the reliability for the Types of Corporal Punishment, Types of Misbehaviour, and Attitude toward Corporal Punishment measures were assessed by entering the data into SPSS (20th version). Accordingly, the computed Cronbach's alpha for the three measures were found to be 0.78, 0.63, and 0.89, respectively. These reliability coefficients are found in the accepted range of reliability coefficient. The small value of the coefficient for the measure of Types of Misbehaviour may be due to the fact that parents skipped some of the misbehaviours that were not done by their children.

The validity of an instrument refers to the extent to which the instrument measures what it is intended to measure (Kothari, 2004). As per validation in this study, the instrument was reviewed by three professionals from the field of developmental psychology (two MA and one PhD holder in developmental psychology). The professionals reviewed the items and evaluated whether the items reflected the research questions of the study.

Accordingly, the validity of the instrument was established through the content validity as evaluated by the professionals. Based on the suggestion given from the professionals and the results of the pilot study, few items were edited to achieve better clarity and the instrument was found to be valuable to collect the data for the main study.

3.6. Data Collection

Owing to time constraint and the large sample size, it was believed to be necessary to hire six data collectors who had experience on house-to-house data collection. The selected Kebele

officials were contacted personally and a letter was written by the Institute of Teachers Education and Behavioral Sciences of Wollo University to request the Kebeles to provide their permission and collaboration in the process of data collection. After obtaining the permission from the respective administrators of each Kebele, the data collection process was started. As part of the data collection process, prior to data collection, a half-day orientation was given to the data collectors during which the objectives of the study were described, each question was discussed, how to record responses of illiterate participants was explained, issues related with confidentiality of responses, informed consent, and data collection ethics were addressed.

Data for the study was collected from parents by administering the questionnaire door to-door with the help of six research assistants. The data collectors explained the research objectives and orally clarified some concepts before and during the filling out of the questionnaire. Obtaining signed informed consent from some participants was challenging for the data collectors because some participants were not willing to put their signature on the format and convincing to do so was time-consuming. For those participants who were totally unable to read and write, the data collectors read the items of the questionnaire and record their responses properly.

3.7. Data Analysis

The participants' responses to the survey questions were analyzed quantitatively using Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20 analytical software. Though the sample size was 603, due to incomplete information, 59 questionnaires were removed and the data of 544 participants were used in the actual analysis. Before the analysis, data screening was conducted. The data were evaluated for outliers and there was no observed outlying case. In addition, multi

collinearity, linearity, homogeneity of variances, and homoscedasticity of the attitude scale were checked and the assumptions had been maintained.

So as to answer the research questions, different analyses such as percentages and means, Chi-square test, t-test, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), logistic regression, and multiple regressions were used. More specifically, means and percentages were used to get answers regarding the prevalence and frequency of corporal punishment use, attitude toward corporal punishment, child age and gender group who received corporal punishment more frequently, common types of corporal punishment, types of misbehaviours that were punished by parents, and parental views on legal ban of corporal punishment. Chi-square tests were used to assess how the prevalence and frequency of corporal punishment use are associated with the selected demographic variables.

An independent samples t-test and one way ANOVA were used to test group differences with respect to attitude towards corporal punishment. Since gender, age, and place of residence have two levels; an independent samples t-test was used to find out whether attitude toward corporal punishment varies with these variables. Moreover, to explore how attitudes toward corporal punishment differ across family size and education level of parents, one-way ANOVA was employed since these variables have more than two levels. For the significant F values of these analyses, Tukey HSD post hoc test was performed to identify which means differ significantly from the other. The association between parental attitude towards corporal punishment and its actual use was examined using logistic regression.

Finally, multiple regressions were used to identify the demographic variables that can significantly predict parental attitude toward corporal punishment.

3.8. Ethical Consideration

This study was conducted in an ethical manner. Prior to data collection, ethical clearance was obtained from the concerned committee in the Department of Psychology at the University of South Africa. Before administering the questionnaire, the purpose of the study was explained and informed consent was solicited from the participants. As a result, only those participants who were willing and signed the consent form completed the questionnaire. Moreover, participants were informed that participation is voluntary and that they have the right to withdraw their consent. Likewise, participants were assured of the anonymity and confidentiality of the information they provided.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULT

This chapter is devoted to the presentation of the results of the study. It is organized on the basis of the research questions presented in the first chapter. The results are presented in tables. In all tables, the numbers in parentheses are percentages. The significance criterion for all statistical tests was set at an Alpha level of 0.05. For both significant and non significant tests, exact p-values were reported.

4.1. Demographic Characteristics of Participants

As Table 2 below depicts, among the total number of participants 287 (53%) were males and 257 (47%) were females. Regarding age, 283(52%) belong to the older group (36 and above years of age) and 261(48%) belong to the younger group (21-35 years of age).

With respect to the participants' education level, the majority of the sample (26%) had secondary school education, followed by parents who had college diploma (23%) and primary education (19%). The rest had junior secondary education (16%), bachelor degree (10%), and 5% were illiterates.

The majority of the participants (60%) were from urban area, whereas the remaining 40% were from rural area. Regarding number of children the parents had, the table illustrates most parents have large number of children. More specifically, 218 (40%) of the parents stated that they had 3-5 children, 218 (39%) 6 or more children, and 114 (21%) 1-2 children.

Table 2:

Demographic Characteristics of Participants

| Demographic variables | Label | Frequency | Percent |
|-----------------------|---------------------------|-----------|---------|
| Gender | | | |
| | Male | 287 | 53 |
| | Female | 257 | 47 |
| Age | | | |
| | 21-35 years | 261 | 48 |
| | 36 and above years | 283 | 52 |
| Education level | | | |
| | Illiterate | 25 | 5 |
| | Primary education | 104 | 19 |
| | Junior secondary | 88 | 16 |
| | Secondary education | 143 | 26 |
| | College diploma | 128 | 24 |
| | Bachelor degree and above | 56 | 10 |
| Number of Children | | | |
| | 1- 2 | 126 | 23 |
| | 3- 5 | 198 | 36 |
| | 6 and more | 220 | 41 |
| Place of residence | | | |
| | Urban | 324 | 60 |
| | Rural | 220 | 40 |

4.2. Prevalence and Frequency of Corporal Punishment

The first research objective that this study aimed to address was to assess the prevalence of corporal punishment among the participants. Accordingly parents were asked whether or not they have used corporal punishment on any of their children within the past 12 months.

Table 3

Prevalence of Corporal Punishment Use

| Use of Corporal Punishment | Frequency | Percent |
|----------------------------|-----------|---------|
| Yes | 436 | 80 |
| No | 108 | 20 |
| Total | 544 | 100 |

The result indicated that majority of the participants (80%) had reported they have used corporal punishment on any one of their children within the past 12 months (See Table 3). Those who reported the use of corporal punishment were also asked how frequently they used it during the past year. Table 4 below indicates that 197 (45%) of the sample parents reported that they have used corporal punishment often, 134 (31%) sometimes, and 104 (24%) rarely. This result indicates corporal punishment was frequently used among the majority of the participants.

Table 4

Frequency of Corporal Punishment Use

| Frequency of Corporal Punishment Use | N | Percent |
|--------------------------------------|-----|---------|
| Rarely | 103 | 24 |
| Sometimes | 136 | 31 |
| Often | 197 | 45 |
| Total | 436 | 100 |

Note. N is the number of parents who used corporal punishment

4.3. Attitude towards Corporal Punishment

The second objective of the study was to assess participants' attitude towards corporal punishment. Parents' attitude was assessed with 8 items that asked participants to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with each item in a scale ranged from strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree (1). In order to understand the nature of parents' attitude towards corporal punishment, the percentages of responses given by parents for each items were computed.. The responses for the eight items are presented on Table 5. The table in indicates that the majority of parents strongly agreed or agreed with statements that support the use of corporal punishment and strongly disagreed or disagreed with statements that are against the use of corporal punishment. As can be seen in the table, 56 % of participants strongly agreed or agreed with the statement "Corporal punishment is necessary as a means of child discipline." In addition, 53% of respondents strongly disagreed or disagreed with the statement "Parents should never use physical punishment to discipline their children." Moreover, 55% of participants strongly agreed or agreed with the statement "Corporal punishment is not harmful to children."

Table 5

Responses for the Attitude Scale

| Items | Response Options | | | | |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------|---------|----------------|----------|-------------------|
| | Strongly agree | Agree | Can not decide | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 1. Corporal punishment is necessary as a means of child discipline. | 133(24) | 172(32) | 105(19) | 107(20) | 27(5) |
| 2. Corporal punishment is an effective strategy to discipline a child. | 102(19) | 199(36) | 115(21) | 98(18) | 30(6) |
| 3. If a child is not beaten for his/her wrong doings, he/she will not learn what is right. | 112(21) | 168(31) | 161(30) | 73(13) | 30(5) |
| 4. Parents should never use physical punishment to discipline their children. | 32(6) | 76(14) | 144(27) | 160(29) | 132(24) |
| 5. Since physically punishing children may have negative consequence we should discontinue the practice. | 26(5) | 107(20) | 110(20) | 188(34) | 113(21) |
| 6. Corporal punishment of children is not an acceptable action. | 35(7) | 89(16) | 136(25) | 164(30) | 120(22) |
| 7. Use of corporal punishment at home is justified. | 140(26) | 162(30) | 115(21) | 93(17) | 34(6) |
| 8. Corporal punishment is not harmful to children. | 122(22) | 177(33) | 136(25) | 87(16) | 22(4) |

Accordingly, it can be concluded that the majority of participants were in favour of the use of corporal punishment.

4.4. Types of Corporal Punishment Used in the Home

Identifying the common types of corporal punishment used by parents was another objective of the study. Parents were asked to indicate the type of corporal punishment they used on their children. Table 6 below indicates the result.

Table 6

Types of Corporal Punishment Used by Participants

| Type of punishment | Parents' use of the type | | |
|---------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------|---------------|-----------------|
| | Never | Once or Twice | More than Twice |
| Slapping a child on the face with an open hand | 57(13) | 123(28) | 256(59) |
| Knocking on the child's head | 43(10) | 129(30) | 264(60) |
| Pulling a child's hair | 114(26) | 175(40) | 147(34) |
| Twisting a child's ear | 104(24) | 148(34) | 184(42) |
| Pinching a child between the thighs | 48(11) | 177(41) | 211(48) |
| Beating a child's arm, buttock or leg with an open hand | 83(19) | 165(38) | 188(43) |
| Beating a child with an object | 89(20) | 177(41) | 170(39) |
| Forcing a child to inhale the smoke of burning pepper | 365(84) | 62(14) | 9(2) |
| Tying a child with rope and beating him/her | 350(80) | 67(15) | 19(5) |
| Burning a child with a hot iron | 383(88) | 40(9) | 13(3) |
| Preventing a child from food | 357(82) | 56(13) | 23(5) |
| Beating a child with burning wood | 402(92) | 24(6) | 10(2) |

Based on the information presented on Table 6, it can easily be understood that different types of corporal punishment were reported to be used by the participants. The most common types reported were knocking a child on the head (90%), pinching a child between the thighs (89%), slapping a child on the face with an open hand (87%), beating a child's arm, buttock, or leg with an open hand (81%), and beating a child with an object (80%).

Some participants reported that they used types of corporal punishment that can be considered to be severe. For example tying with rope and beating was reported to be used by 20 % and forcing a child to inhale the smoke of burning pepper was reported to be used by 16% of the participants.

4.5. Types of Child Misbehaviours

To identify the common misbehaviours that lead parents to use physical punishment, 17 types of misbehaviour were listed on the questionnaire and parents were asked to indicate the behaviour they physically punished. The result is presented on Table 7. The numbers in the table indicate the number of parents who reported their children engaged on the misbehaviour. Parents whose child didn't do the misbehaviour skipped the behaviour while responding to the questionnaire.

As can be seen from the table, the most common misbehaviours that were reported to be punished by parents were stealing (96%), disobedience (95%), lying (94%), playing with dangerous objects (92%), and quarreling with siblings or other children (90%). The result also indicates that there are some behaviours that were reported to be never punished by a larger proportion of participants. In relation to this, poor academic achievement was reported to be never punished by 65% of parents whose children experienced the behaviour. Similarly, behaviours such as not washing hands before and after meal, and urinating on bed during night were reported to be never punished by 58% and 57% of the respondents, respectively.

Table 7

Types of Misbehaviors Punished by Parents

| Type of misbehaviour | N | Parents' response | | |
|--------------------------------------------|-----|-------------------|--------------------|-----------------|
| | | Never punished | Sometimes punished | Always punished |
| Disobedience | 410 | 19(5) | 90(22) | 301(73) |
| Stealing | 369 | 15(4) | 77(21) | 277(75) |
| Lying | 402 | 23(6) | 89(22) | 290(72) |
| Continuous crying | 393 | 103(26) | 163(42) | 127(32) |
| Not washing hands before or after meal | 349 | 203(58) | 105(30) | 41(12) |
| Playing with dangerous objects | 394 | 33(8) | 82(21) | 279(71) |
| Quarreling with siblings or other children | 404 | 42(10) | 80(20) | 282(70) |
| Damaging home property | 399 | 163(41) | 141(35) | 95(24) |
| Poor academic achievement in school | 366 | 236(65) | 91(25) | 39(10) |
| Going out of home without permission | 316 | 115(36) | 94(30) | 107(34) |
| Coming home late during night | 311 | 131(42) | 42(14) | 138(44) |
| Smoking cigarette | 186 | 51(27) | 40(22) | 95(51) |
| Chewing Khat | 191 | 62(32) | 26(14) | 103(54) |
| Drinking Alcohol | 204 | 77(37) | 23(11) | 104(56) |
| Using bad words | 328 | 59(18) | 98(30) | 171(52) |
| Urinating on bed during night | 102 | 57(56) | 30(29) | 15(15) |
| Making too much noise at home | 308 | 46(6) | 100(32) | 162(53) |

4.6. Frequently Punished Age Group and Gender of Child

To identify the age group of the child parents punished more frequently, parents were requested to indicate how frequently they punished their children in five categories of age groups. The result is presented on Table 8.

Table 8

Age Group of Frequently Punished Children

| Age group in years | N | Frequency of corporal punishment use | | | |
|--------------------|-----|--------------------------------------|---------|-----------|---------|
| | | Never | Rarely | Sometimes | Often |
| 0-2 | 329 | 17(5) | 138(42) | 133(40) | 41(13) |
| 3-5 | 355 | 15(4) | 64(18) | 152(43) | 124(35) |
| 6-8 | 331 | 7(2) | 39(12) | 114(34) | 171(52) |
| 9-11 | 336 | 56(17) | 182(54) | 70(21) | 28(8) |
| 12-14 | 304 | 118(39) | 124(41) | 55(18) | 7(2) |
| 15 and above | 312 | 111(35) | 140(45) | 38(13) | 23(7) |

As can be seen from Table 8, parents are more likely to punish younger children than older children. For example, among 355 parents who had children in the age group of 3-5 years, 35% reported they punished their children ‘often’, 43 % reported they punished ‘sometimes’. Similarly, among 331 parents who had children in the age group of 6-8 years, 52 % reported they ‘often’ used corporal punishment on their children and 34% used it ‘sometimes’. On the other hand, among 304 parents who had children in the age group of 12-14 years, only 2% and 18% reported to use corporal punishment ‘often’ and ‘sometimes’ respectively.

Parents were also requested to indicate the gender of their children they punished more frequently. Those parents who had children of the same sex were requested to skip this question. Accordingly, 405 parents who had children of both gender responded to the question. The result is presented in Table 9.

Table 9

Gender of Frequently Punished Child

| Gender | Frequency | Percent |
|--------|-----------|---------|
| Male | 217 | 53 |
| Female | 157 | 39 |
| Both | 31 | 8 |
| Total | 405 | 100 |

Table 9 depicts that most participants (53%) reported they punished their sons more frequently than their daughters and few (8%) reported no gender difference.

4.7. Factors Related to Prevalence and Frequency of Corporal Punishment

To identify the factors associated with the prevalence and frequency of corporal punishment use, chi-square tests were conducted. The result of the tests is presented below.

Parents' Gender

A chi-square test was performed to examine the association between gender of parents and prevalence of corporal punishment use.

Table 10

Result of Chi-square Test and Descriptive Statistics for Corporal Punishment Prevalence by Gender

| Gender | Use of corporal punishment during the past year | | | χ^2 | <i>p</i> |
|--------|-------------------------------------------------|----------|-------|----------|----------|
| | Yes | No | Total | | |
| Male | 216(75.3) | 37(14.4) | 261 | 9.11 | .003 |
| Female | 220(85.6) | 71(24.7) | 283 | | |
| Total | 436 | 108 | 544 | | |

As can be seen on Table 10, the association between these variables was significant, χ^2 (1,544) =9.11, $p=0.003$. Mothers were more likely to use corporal punishment than fathers. The association between gender of parents and frequency of corporal punishment use was also tested using chi-square.

Table 11

Chi-square Test and Descriptive Statistics for Corporal Punishment Frequency by Gender

| Gender | Frequency of corporal punishment use during the past year | | | | χ^2 | <i>p</i> |
|--------|-----------------------------------------------------------|-----------|--------|-------|----------|----------|
| | Often | Sometimes | Rarely | Total | | |
| Male | 77(35) | 73(34) | 66(31) | 216 | 21.32 | .000 |
| Female | 120(54) | 68(31) | 32(15) | 220 | | |
| Total | 197 | 141 | 98 | 436 | | |

The result, as indicated in Table10, was statistically significant, $\chi^2 (2,436)=21.32, p<0.001$. Larger proportion of the mothers (54%) reported to use corporal punishment often whereas 35% of the fathers reported to use corporal punishment to the same degree of frequency. This implies that corporal punishment use is more frequent among the mothers than the fathers in the present sample.

Age of Parents

In this study parents were grouped into two age groups. Participants whose age was 21-35 years were included in the younger group and participants whose age was 36 years and above were grouped under the older group.

Table 12

Chi-square Test and Descriptive Statistics for Corporal Punishment Prevalence by Age

| Age group | Use of corporal punishment during the past year | | | χ^2 | <i>p</i> |
|--------------------|-------------------------------------------------|--------|-------|----------|----------|
| | Yes | No | Total | | |
| 21-35 years | 228(87) | 33(13) | 261 | 16.39 | .000 |
| 36 and above years | 208(73) | 75(27) | 283 | | |
| Total | 436 | 108 | 544 | | |

Chi square was used to test the association between prevalence of corporal punishment and age of parents and the result is presented in Table 12.

The result indicated that age of parents was significantly associated with prevalence of corporal punishment use, $\chi^2(1,544) = 16.39$, $p < 0.001$. Based on this result, it appears that corporal punishment use is more prevalent among young parents than older parents.

Table 13

Result of Chi-square Test and Descriptive Statistics for Corporal Punishment Frequency by Age

| Age group | Frequency of corporal punishment use during the past year | | | | χ^2 | p |
|--------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------|-----------|--------|-------|----------|------|
| | Often | Sometimes | Rarely | Total | | |
| 21-35 years | 124(55) | 58(25) | 46(20) | 228 | 17.12 | .000 |
| 36 and above years | 73(35) | 83(40) | 52(25) | 208 | | |
| Total | 197 | 141 | 98 | 436 | | |

The frequency of corporal punishment use and age of parents was also tested using chi-square. The result was statistically significant, $\chi^2(2,436) = 17.12$, $p < 0.001$. The result indicated that corporal punishment was more frequent among the young than the old parents in the study sample.

Education Level of Parents

The association between corporal punishment use and parental education level was statistically tested. The result of the chi-square test is presented in Table 14. The result was statistically significant, $\chi^2(5,544) = 20.95$, $p = 0.001$. Corporal punishment use was more prevalent among parents with lower education level than among parents with higher education level in the present sample.

Table 14

Result of Chi-square Test and Descriptive Statistics for Corporal Punishment Prevalence by Education level

| Education level | Use of corporal punishment during the past year | | | χ^2 | p |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------------------------------|--------|-------|----------|------|
| | Yes | No | Total | | |
| Illiterate | 20(80) | 5(20) | 25 | 20.95 | .001 |
| Primary education | 92(89) | 12(11) | 104 | | |
| Junior secondary | 76(86) | 12(14) | 88 | | |
| Secondary education | 118(82) | 25(18) | 143 | | |
| College diploma | 95(74) | 33(26) | 128 | | |
| Bachelor's degree and above | 35(62) | 21(38) | 56 | | |
| Total | 436 | 108 | 544 | | |

The association between parental education level and frequency of corporal punishment use was also tested using chi- square analysis. The result was significant, $\chi^2 (10,436) = 20.04$, $p = 0.029$ (See Table 15). Parents with lower education level reported more frequent use of corporal punishment than parents with higher education level.

Table 15

Result of Chi-square Test and Descriptive Statistics for Corporal Punishment Frequency by Education Level

| Education level | Frequency of corporal punishment use during the past year | | | | χ^2 | p |
|----------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------|-----------|--------|-------|----------|-------|
| | Often | Sometimes | Rarely | Total | | |
| Illiterate | 10(50) | 8(40) | 2(10) | 20 | 20.04 | 0.029 |
| Primary education | 50(55) | 28(30) | 14(15) | 92 | | |
| Junior secondary | 38(50) | 23(30) | 15(20) | 76 | | |
| Secondary education | 56(47) | 36(31) | 26(22) | 118 | | |
| College diploma | 35(36) | 29(31) | 31(33) | 95 | | |
| Bachelors degree and above | 8(23) | 17(48) | 10(29) | 35 | | |
| Total | 197 | 141 | 98 | 436 | | |

Number of Children

Number of children was the family factor in this study that was tested to determine its association with the use and frequency of corporal punishment. As Table 16 indicates the chi-square test conducted to determine the association between number of children and corporal punishment use was statistically significant, $\chi^2(2,544) = 35.40, p < 0.001$. This suggests that corporal punishment was more prevalent in families with larger number of children than those with smaller number of children in the current sample.

Table 16

Result of Chi-square Test and Descriptive Statistics for Corporal Punishment Prevalence by Number of Children

| Number of children | Use of corporal punishment during the past year | | | χ^2 | p |
|--------------------|-------------------------------------------------|--------|-------|----------|------|
| | Yes | No | Total | | |
| 1-2 | 80(63) | 46(37) | 126 | 35.40 | .000 |
| 3-5 | 158(80) | 40(20) | 198 | | |
| 6 and more | 198(90) | 22(10) | 220 | | |
| Total | 436 | 108 | 544 | | |

The association between number of children and frequency of corporal punishment use was also tested. As indicated in Table 17, the result was statistically significant, $\chi^2 (4,436) = 49.17$, $p < 0.001$. This result showed that corporal punishment was more frequently used by parents who had larger number of children than parents with small number of children.

Table 17

Result of Chi-square Test and Descriptive Statistics for Corporal Punishment Frequency by Number of Children

| Number of children | Frequency of corporal punishment use during the past year | | | | χ^2 | <i>p</i> |
|--------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------|-----------|--------|-------|----------|----------|
| | Often | Sometimes | Rarely | Total | | |
| 1-2 | 21(26) | 20(25) | 39(49) | 80 | 49.17 | .000 |
| 3-5 | 66(42) | 55(35) | 37(23) | 158 | | |
| 6 and more | 110(56) | 66(33) | 22(11) | 198 | | |
| Total | 197 | 141 | 98 | 436 | | |

Place of Residence

Place of residence was the community factor that was introduced in this study to assess its association with use and frequency of parental corporal punishment.

Table 18

Result of Chi-square Test and Descriptive Statistics for Corporal Punishment Prevalence by Place of Residence

| Place of residence | Use of corporal punishment during the past year | | | χ^2 | <i>p</i> |
|--------------------|-------------------------------------------------|--------|-------|----------|----------|
| | Yes | No | Total | | |
| Urban | 253(78) | 71(22) | 324 | 2.14 | 0.144 |
| Rural | 183(83) | 37(17) | 220 | | |
| Total | 436 | 108 | 544 | | |

Table 18 presents the result of the chi-square test that was conducted to test the association between prevalence of corporal punishment use and place of residence. As indicated on the table, the result was not statistically significant, $\chi^2 (1,544) = 2.14$, $p = 0.144$. However, larger proportion of parents from the rural area reported use of corporal punishment.

Table 19

Result of Chi-square Test and Descriptive Statistics for Corporal Punishment Frequency by Place of Residence

| Place of residence | Frequency of corporal punishment use during the past year | | | | χ^2 | p |
|--------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------|-----------|--------|-------|----------|------|
| | Often | Sometimes | Rarely | Total | | |
| Urban | 122(48) | 71(28) | 60(24) | 253 | 5.05 | 0.08 |
| Rural | 75(41) | 70(38) | 38(21) | 183 | | |
| Total | 197 | 141 | 98 | 436 | | |

Table 19 shows the chi-square test conducted to assess the association between place of residence and frequency of corporal punishment use. The result was not significant, $\chi^2(2,436) = 5.05$, $p = 0.08$.

4.8. Attitude towards Corporal Punishment and Demographic Variables

The other objectives of this study were examining whether there is demographic difference among parents with respect to their attitude towards corporal punishment and to identify which of the demographic variables predict parents' attitude. Accordingly statistical tests were conducted and the result is presented below.

Gender of Parents

In order to examine the difference between fathers and mothers with respect to their attitude toward corporal punishment, an independent samples t-test was conducted.

Table 20

Independent Samples t-test for Attitude towards Corporal Punishment by Gender

| Gender | N | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>t</i> | df | Sig.(2-tailed) |
|--------|-----|----------|-----------|----------|-----|----------------|
| Female | 257 | 29.17 | 7.851 | 3.537 | 542 | .000 |
| Male | 287 | 26.79 | 7.924 | | | |

As indicated in Table 20, the result was significant, $t(542) = 3.537$, $p < 0.001$. On average, mothers tended to have more favorable attitude toward corporal punishment than fathers.

Age of Parents

An independent samples t-test was conducted in order to test age difference among parents with respect to their attitude towards corporal punishment.

Table 21

Independent Samples t-test for Attitude towards Corporal Punishment by Age

| Age | N | M | SD | t | df | Sig.(2-tailed) |
|--------------------|-----|-------|-------|-------|-----|----------------|
| 21-35 years | 266 | 28.41 | 7.893 | 1.373 | 542 | 0.170 |
| 36 and above years | 278 | 27.47 | 8.035 | | | |

As indicated in Table 21 the result was not significant, $t(542) = 1.373$, $p = 0.17$. However, the average total attitude score for younger parents was slightly higher than that of older parents.

Education Level of Parents

In order to examine attitudinal difference among parents across their educational level, a One Way Analysis of Variance was conducted. Table 22 presents the result of the one way ANOVA.

Table 22

One-Way Analysis of Variance of Attitude toward Corporal Punishment by Number of Children

| Source | df | SS | MS | F | P |
|----------------|-----|----------|---------|-------|------|
| Between groups | 5 | 11521.53 | 2304.31 | 53.92 | .000 |
| Within groups | 538 | 22993.53 | 42.74 | | |
| Total | 543 | 34515.06 | | | |

As can be seen from the table, the result was significant, $F(5,538) = 53.92$, $p < 0.001$. For better understanding of the mean difference, post hoc analysis using Tuckey HSD was

conducted. The result showed the existence of mean difference between the following groups. The mean attitude score of illiterate parents ($M=33.08$, $SD=4.73$) was significantly different from those parents with secondary education ($M=28.83$, $SD=7.46$), college diploma ($M=23.33$, $SD=7.67$), and bachelor degree and above ($M=19.04$, $SD=5.54$). The mean attitude score of parents with primary education ($M=32.63$, $SD=4.55$) was significantly different from that of parents with secondary education ($M=28.83$, $SD=7.46$), college diploma ($M=23.33$, $SD=7.67$), and bachelor degree and above ($M=19.04$, $SD=5.54$). The mean attitude score of parents with junior secondary education ($M=31.77$, $SD=6.09$) was significantly different from that of parents with secondary education ($M=28.83$, $SD=7.46$), college diploma ($M=23.33$, $SD=7.67$), and bachelor degree and above ($M=19.04$, $SD=5.54$). The mean attitude score of parents with secondary education ($M=31.77$, $SD=6.09$) was significantly different from that of parents with college diploma ($M=23.33$, $SD=7.67$), and bachelor degree and above ($M=19.04$, $SD=5.54$). The mean attitude score of parents with college diploma ($M=23.33$, $SD=7.67$), was also significantly different from that of parents with bachelor degree and above ($M=19.04$, $SD=5.54$). This result suggests that compared to parents with higher education level, those with lower education level have reported greater support for the use of corporal punishment.

Number of Children

In order to examine whether parents who have different number of children differ with respect to their attitude towards corporal punishment, a one way ANOVA was conducted.

Table 23

One-Way Analysis of Variance of Attitude toward Corporal Punishment by Number of Children

| Source | df | SS | MS | F | P |
|----------------|-----|----------|---------|-------|------|
| Between groups | 2 | 2758.22 | 1379.11 | 23.49 | .000 |
| Within groups | 541 | 31756.84 | 58.70 | | |
| Total | 543 | 34515.06 | | | |

The result indicated that there was statically significant mean difference on attitude towards corporal punishment across the groups, $F(2,541) = 23.49, p < 0.001$ (See table 23). Post hoc analysis using Tuckey HSD showed the existence of significant mean difference between parents who have 1-2 number of children ($M=28.83, SD=7.860$) and parents who have 3-5 number of children ($M=29.14, SD=7.573$) and between parents who have 1-2 number of children ($M=28.83, SD=7.860$) and parents who have 6 and more number of children ($M=29.19, SD=7.626$). These results suggest that parents with larger number of children have reported greater support to the use of corporal punishment than parents with smaller number of children.

Place of Residence

The attitudinal difference between parents from urban and rural areas was also tested using an independent samples t-test.

Table 24

Independent Samples t-test for Attitude towards Corporal Punishment by Place of Residence

| Place of residence | N | M | SD | t | df | Sig.(2-tailed) |
|--------------------|-----|-------|-------|--------|-----|----------------|
| Urban | 324 | 26.40 | 8.408 | -5.586 | 528 | .000 |
| Rural | 220 | 30.18 | 6.690 | | | |

As Table 24 indicates, the result was statistically significant, $t(528) = -5.586$, $p < 0.001$. The result implies that participants from rural area showed more favourable attitude toward corporal punishment than those who were from urban area.

Predictors of Attitude toward Corporal Punishment

One objective of this study was to identify some predictors of parental attitude towards corporal punishment use. To this end, the demographic variables age, gender, education level, place of residence, and number of children were used in multiple regression. Table 25 and Table 26 present the result of the standard multiple regression analysis conducted.

Table 25

Model Summary of Multiple Regressions

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate |
|-------|------|----------|-------------------|----------------------------|
| 1 | .608 | .370 | .364 | 6.358 |

A. Predictors: (Constant), Gender, Age, Education Level, Number of Children, Place of Residence

Table 26

ANOVA of Multiple Regression

| | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|------------|-------------------|-----|----------------|--------|-------------------|
| Regression | 12769.257 | 5 | 2553.851 | 63.183 | .000 ^b |
| Residual | 21745.802 | 538 | 40.420 | | |
| Total | 34515.059 | 543 | | | |

A. Dependent Variable: Attitude

B. Predictors: (Constant), Gender, Age, Education Level, Number of Children, Place of Residence

As can be seen from Table 25 and Table 26, the prediction model was statistically significant ($F(5,538) = 63.18$, $p < 0.001$.) and accounted for about 37 % of the variance in parental attitude towards corporal punishment ($R^2 = 0.370$, adjusted $R^2 = 0.364$). The unique contribution of each variable for the model was evaluated using beta weights and the squared semi partial coefficients.

Accordingly, parental attitude towards corporal punishment was primarily predicted by level of education

Table 27

Summary of Multiple Regression Coefficients on Predicting Attitudes towards Corporal Punishment

| Model | Un standardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig | Sr ² |
|--------------------|------------------------------|------------|---------------------------|---------|------|-----------------|
| | B | Std. Error | Beta | | | |
| (Constant) | 30.710 | 1.625 | | 18.903 | .000 | |
| Age | -.533 | 0.554 | -.033 | -.962 | .337 | -0.001 |
| Gender | -1.809 | 0.576 | -.113 | -3.139 | .002 | -0.011 |
| Education level | -2.916 | 0.200 | -.508 | -14.572 | .000 | -0.249 |
| Place of residence | 2.372 | 0.581 | .146 | 4.082 | .000 | 0.019 |
| Number of Children | 1.698 | 0.370 | .166 | 4.584 | .000 | 0.024 |

. That is, as can be seen in Table 26, level of education received the strongest weight ($\beta = -0.508$, $Sr^2 = -0.249$), followed by number of children ($\beta = 0.166$, $Sr^2 = 0.024$), and place of residence ($\beta = 0.146$, $Sr^2 = 0.019$). The effect of gender was weak, but statistically significant ($\beta = -0.113$, $Sr^2 = -0.011$). Age of parents ($\beta = -0.033$, $Sr^2 = -0.001$), did not significantly contribute to the model.

4.9. Association between Parents' Attitude toward and Their Use of Corporal Punishment

To examine the association between attitude of parents and their use of corporal punishment, logistic regression was conducted. Table 28 presents the result.

Table 28

Logistic Regression of Attitude toward Corporal Punishment with respect to Its Use

| Variable | B | S.E. | Wald | df | sig | Exp(B) |
|----------|-------|-------|--------|----|------|--------|
| Attitude | 0.062 | 0.013 | 22.274 | 1 | .000 | 1.064 |

The result shows that there was statistically significant association between parental attitude toward and use of corporal punishment (Wald=22.274, $p<0.001$). The Odds ratio Exp (β) =1.064 shows that parents with supportive attitude are 1.064 times more likely to use corporal punishment on their children.

4.10. View of Parents on Legal Ban of Corporal Punishment

To assess parents' view on legal ban of corporal punishment, two questions were presented. The first question asked parents whether or not they believed on legal ban of all forms of corporal punishment. The second question requested them whether or not they believed on legal ban of sever forms of corporal punishment. The result is presented on Table 27.

Table 29

Frequency of Parental Responses on View of Legal Ban of Corporal Punishment

| Statement | Response | |
|---------------------------------------|-----------|------------------|
| | I believe | I do not believe |
| I believe on legal ban of all forms | 58(11) | 486(89) |
| I believe on legal ban of sever forms | 262(48) | 282(52) |

As indicated in the table, 89% and 52 % of parents responded that they did not believe on legal ban of all forms of and severe forms of corporal punishment, respectively. The result suggested that the majority of parents in the sample did not believe in legislation that prohibits corporal punishment use. However, about half of the sample parents believed on legal ban of severe forms of corporal. Further assessment of the data indicated that most participant who believed in legal ban of sever forms of corporal punishment were those with higher level of education, were urban residents, and who had small number of children.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

The main purpose of the study was to assess the prevalence of and attitude toward parental corporal punishment. To this purpose, data were collected from 544 parents using self-administered questionnaires. The gathered data were analyzed using different statistical techniques such as percentage, chi-square, t-test, one-way analysis of variance, and multiple regressions. The results of the analyses were presented in the previous chapter. This chapter is aimed at discussing the results in light of the existing literature.

5.1. Prevalence of and Attitude toward Corporal Punishment

The first research objective that the study addressed was intended to assess the prevalence of parental corporal punishment use. As to the result from the study, the majority of the participants (80%) reported that they used corporal punishment on their children within the past 12 months. In addition, it was also reported that parents used corporal punishment frequently. The frequency of corporal punishment use of parents was found to be 45.3 % (often) and 30.8% (sometimes).

In an attempt to assess parental attitude toward corporal punishment, the percentage responses given to the alternatives on each item on the attitude scale were calculated. The result indicated that most participants of the study in favour of the use of physical punishment on children.

Based on these findings, it can be concluded that corporal punishment is highly prevalent and frequent among the study participants. This finding is consistent with the existing literature in Ethiopia. This can be evidenced in Lelieveld (2011). This study was undertaken in Somalia

region. Among 47 focus group discussions conducted in this study, 68% of them discussed parental use of corporal punishment as a common way of keeping children in line.

Another study in Jimma zone of Oromoya regional state by Dereje et al. (2014) found that 89.79 % of parents from the urban area and 100% of parents from the rural area used corporal punishment on their children. Besides, Ketsela and Kebede (1997) studied physical punishment on 649 elementary school children in urban and rural communities in Ethiopia. From the interview conducted, 80% of the urban and 76% of the rural children admitted being subjected to physical punishment.

Likewise, corporal punishment was reported to be a highly prevalent disciplinary strategy used by parents living across many countries. For example, the prevalence was reported to be 75% in UK (Nobes & Smith, 1997) and more than 70% in China (Tang, 2006). In Ghana, a study found that the majority of school children (61%) participated in the study experienced corporal punishment by parents or primary caregivers (Twam-Dansom, 2013). Lansford et al. (2010) also found out that 74% of Filipino parents used corporal punishment in their home.

This study also found out that the majority of the participants have favourable attitude towards corporal punishment use. The acceptability of corporal punishment in Ethiopia can be manifested by the proverbs which are common among the society. Out of many, two proverbs common to my study area are mentioned here: “ልጅ የሚበላውን አይጣ አንጂ ዱላ አይገድለውም” [Beating will not kill a child as long as he has something to eat]. “ተረግጦ ያደገ ተራራ ይዘላል፣ ሳይቀጡት ያደገ አባቱን ይገላል” [One who was punished as a kid would jump the mountain; while the unpunished one kills his father].

The traditional belief that can be reflected by such proverbs may strengthen the legitimacy of using corporal punishment to discipline children. Supporting this idea, Dereje et al.

(2014) stated that corporal punishment is part of the social control mechanisms to prevent misbehaviours of children in Ethiopia.

Similarly, several studies conducted in different countries suggested that many parents believe in using corporal punishment as a disciplinary method (Gracia & Herero, 2008; Lansford, 2010; Orhon et al., 2006; Qasem et al., 1998; Yang, 2009).

The belief in using corporal punishment might be related to the high prevalence of corporal punishment use. For Beazley and colleagues (2006), high prevalence of corporal punishment use in a country could be attributed to social and legal norms in the country which consider corporal punishment as not only acceptable but also expected of responsible parents.

The foregoing discussion appears to suggest that the use of corporal punishment as a means of disciplining children is a socially approved common parental behaviour across the world, including Ethiopia.

5.2. Types of Corporal Punishment

Another objective of the study was to identify the common types of corporal punishment used by parents. A list of 12 types of punishment was presented on the questionnaire and parents were requested to indicate the type of punishment they have used on their children.

The result indicated that parents use different types of punishment. The most common types of punishment are: knocking on the head (90%), pinching between the thighs (89%), slapping on the face with an open hand (87%), beating a child's arm, buttock or leg with an open hand (81%), and beating a child with an object such as belt, stick, electric wire or some other hard material (80%). With the exception of the punishment that involves the use of objects like belt or electric wire, most of these types of punishment can be regarded as light types of punishment.

However, a considerable number of parents reported to use severe types of punishment such as forcing a child to inhale the smoke of burning pepper, tying a child with rope and beating him/her. For example, 20% of participants reported that they used tying with rope and beating, and 16% reported punishment that involved forcing a child to inhale the smoke of burning pepper.

Other studies conducted in Ethiopia also reported that parents use a range of different types of punishment on their children. For example, according to one study, beating with an object was found to be the most prevalent form of physical punishment. Besides spanking, hitting, or slapping with a bare hand; hitting or slapping on the hand, arm, or leg; and shaking were also common forms of punishment. In the same study, the prevalence of the other forms of physical punishment were 74% for hitting with a stick, 73.3% for hitting on the head, 70.3% slapping, 69.9% pinching, 63.7% being beaten with a belt, and 53.1% being forced to kneel down (Save the Children Sweden & African Child Policy Forum, 2005). More recently, a study conducted to investigate the prevalence of physical and psychological forms of child abuse in Ethiopia (Mulate, 2014) showed that respondents experienced the following forms; pinching (78.5%), kicked with an object (73.8), hitting on the head or face (70.73%), twisting ear (44.6%), kneeling down (36.2%), burned with fire (20.9%) .

5.3. Types of Child Misbehaviour

In order to identify the common types of child misbehaviours that lead parents to use corporal punishment, 17 types of misbehaviours were listed and parents were requested to indicate whether they have used corporal punishment for these behaviours. Accordingly, large number of parents reported that they always used corporal punishment on their children for engaging in behaviours such as disobedience, lying, stealing, playing with dangerous objects and quarrelling

with siblings or other children. Most parents didn't report about their children engagement in behaviours such as smoking cigarette, chewing chat, and drinking alcohol. However, if these were practiced, most parents reported to use corporal punishment.

Different studies identified similar behaviours as a reason why parents punish their children. For example, lying, stealing, hitting others, talking back, disobedience were considered as bad behaviours that lead parents to use corporal punishment on their children (Beazley et al., 2006). In Jamaica, children are often punished for acts of disrespect, lying, stealing, disobedience, crying too much, not eating a meal as provided, not fulfilling school expectations, and not completing household chores (Barrow, cited in Steely & Rohner, 2006). Another study conducted in Iran found out that disobedience, dangerous behaviour, fighting, lying, using bad language, driving without license, smoking, stealing, and drug abuse were the reasons given by parents for their corporal punishment use (Qasem et al., 1998).

On the other hand, in this study, large proportion of parents reported that they have never punished their children for low score in school (61%), not washing hand before and after meal (58%), and urinating on bed during night (57%). This result is inconsistent with some studies that reported children are punished for poor academic performance and not washing hands before and after meal (Qasem et al., 1998). This may be because parents in this study may not consider the behaviours as wrongdoings. Instead; it seems that parents may consider such behaviours as lack of awareness and self control, or personal inadequacy.

5.4. Factors Associated with Corporal Punishment Use

In this study, I used an ecological approach to examine how multiple factors are related to parental use of and attitude toward corporal punishment. More specifically, the use of and attitude toward corporal punishment were assessed at different ecological levels that included

individual (child age, child gender, parents' gender, parents' age, parents' educational level), familial (number of children) and community (place of residence) levels. Discussion of the results regarding these factors is presented in the forthcoming paragraphs

Child Age

In this study, parents were requested to indicate the age group of their children they most frequently punished. The majority of parents reported that the children they most frequently punished belong to the younger age group than the older one.

Similarly, several studies indicated that younger children are more likely to be frequently spanked by their parents (Day et al., 1998; Dietz, 2000; Giles-Sims et al., 1995; Straus, 1994; Straus & Stewart, 1999; Xu et al., 2000; Yousef et al., 1998a). In line with this, Dietz (2000) found out that the majority of children between the ages of 2 and 8 years old had received corporal punishment within the past year and parents were less often found to punish older children corporally. Besides, Socolar and Stien (1995) surveyed mothers from different ethnic groups to see if they believed spanking infants was acceptable. Out of the entire group of mothers participated in the study, 19% of mothers felt it was necessary to spank infants under a year at times, and 74% believed this for children between one and three years old. In another study, Giles-Sims et al. (1995) asked parents to report on their use of corporal punishment in their home. The study revealed that children between ages 3 and 5 years were most likely to be spanked (60.7%), followed by children 6-9 years (36.5%), and finally children 10 years and older. This is also substantiated by Grogan-Kaylor and Otis (2007), that as children get older, the probability for experiencing corporal punishment decreases.

The use of more frequent corporal punishment with younger children than older children may be linked to parental beliefs regarding the appropriateness of corporal punishment use.

Studies found that corporal punishment is considered to be appropriate for young school children than older children (Akmatove, 2011; Hunter et al., 2000; Nobes & Smith, 1997; Vitrupp & Holden, 2010). Such belief is common in the study area. Parents usually say “ልጄን በጡት እህልን በጥቅምት” which literally means “As the right time to harvest is on the month of October, the time of shaping the child’s behaviour is during the breastfeeding age.” This implies that parents believe in the need to shape their children during the early period of life. Such a conception may lead them to use more frequent corporal punishment on younger children than older ones.

Child Gender

Regarding child’s gender, among participants who had children of both sexes, the majority (53%) reported that they have punished boys more frequently than girls. Similar result was reported by studies conducted in Ethiopia (Mulate, 2014; Save the Children Sweden, 2005). On the other hand, another local study by Dereje et al. (2014) reported that gender difference with respect to corporal punishment experience is more pronounced in rural areas than urban areas and females experience more frequent punishment than males.

Previous studies conducted in different countries that examined the use of corporal punishment consistently indicated that boys experience corporal punishment more frequently than girls (Abolfotouh, El-Bourgy & Sef El-Din, 2009; Dawes et al., 2005; Day et al., 1998; Dietz, 2000; Giles-Sims et al., 1995; Keer et al., 2004; Sanapo & Nakamura, 2011; Straus & Stewart, 1999). For example, in South Asia, girls are not hit as often as boys, rather, they are more likely to be punished by verbal abuse or having increased household chores (Beazeley et al., 2006).

Researchers attributed this gender difference to different parental expectation from boys and girls. For example, Huston (Cited in Gershoff, 2002) explained this relating it to the

difference in parental expectation of their sons and daughters. According to him, parents often have different expectations of their children, and as a result, they may respond differently to the same misbehaviour depending on the gender of the child engaged in that behaviour.

In the study area, it seems that boys are more likely to spend most of their time outside the home being engaged in activities such as playing, herding cattle, and keeping the farm. Because of this, they may be more likely to engage in behaviours such as aggression, quarreling with others, and loss of property that can elicit the use of corporal punishment from their parents. Unlike that of boys, it seems that girls are considered to be more obedient, less aggressive and physically weak. This may result in experiencing less frequent corporal punishment.

Gender of Parents

The result of the study indicated statistically significant association between gender of parents and the prevalence and frequency of their corporal punishment use. Accordingly, the prevalence and frequency of corporal punishment use is higher among mothers than among fathers.

This result is consistent with a number of previous studies. Many studies report that the gender of parents is often linked with the use of corporal punishment, with mothers reporting more frequent use (Day et al., 1998; Nobes et al., 1999; Straus & Stewart, 1999; Xu et al., 2000). However, the result contradicts with some findings that reported small or no difference between mothers and fathers. For example, Rodriguez and Sutherland (1999) found no parental difference in rates of reported spanking.

The high prevalence and frequency of corporal punishment use among mothers has been linked to the large amount of time which mothers spend with their children (Gershof, 2002; Jackson et al., 1999). Since mothers have higher amount of responsibility for child-rearing and

they spend large amount of time with their children, they are more likely to use corporal punishment more frequently than fathers.

It appears that the same explanation holds true for the finding in the present research context. One of the common maxims in the study area is “ሴት ወደ ማጀት ወንድ ወደ ችሎት” literally meaning "The appropriate place for a woman is the home and for the man the public sphere." This implies, traditionally, women are expected to stay at home to manage household tasks while men are expected to work outside. In addition, another metaphor goes like this “አይብ ከአጎቱ ፤ልጅ ከእናቱ” literally meaning “As cheese is from the whey, a child is from his mother.” This implies that the local tradition emphasizes mothers’ role in shaping the behaviour of the child.

Furthermore, in Ethiopia, it appears that most mothers are housewives. They spend most of their time in the home managing household tasks and rearing children while fathers spend most of their time in the fieldwork. All these may lead mothers to use more frequent corporal punishment to mould the behaviours of children at home than fathers.

Age of Parents

Regarding age, the study found that parental age is significantly associated with the prevalence and frequency of corporal punishment use, indicating corporal punishment is highly prevalent and frequent among younger parents (21-35 years of age) than older parents (36 years and above). The finding is consistent with various studies (Combs-Ormea & Cain, 2008; Day et al., 1998; Dietz, 2000; Giles-Sims et al., 1995; Tang, 2000; Xu et al., 2000).

This difference between younger parents and older parents was explained by Day et al. (1998). According to them, parent’s use of corporal punishment declines as they become older because they become more educated and have learned from the experiences life has given them.

Another explanation is accredited to lack of parenting experience, which leads younger parents more likely to use corporal punishment than older parents (Gelshoff, 2002; Tang, 2006).

Educational Level of Parents

The association of this factor with the prevalence and frequency of corporal punishment use was found to be statistically significant. The prevalence and frequency of corporal punishment use was higher among parents who were illiterate and at lower education level.

Consistent to this result, several studies that have examined the relationship between parental education level and use of and attitude toward corporal punishment have reported inverse relationship, that is, as education level increases, parental use of corporal punishment and attitude towards it decreases (Abolfotouh et al., 2009; Alyahri & Goodman, 2008; Dietz, 2000; Guttman et al., 2009; Hunter et al., 2000).

The greater use of corporal punishment with parents who have low education level may be explained by lack of knowledge about alternative methods for childrearing (Dawes et al., 2005; Dietz, 2000; Eamon, 2001). Besides, they may overlook the impact of using physical force on children.

Number of Children

In this study, the result indicated that corporal punishment use was more prevalent and frequent among parents with larger number of children. A number of other studies reported consistent findings regarding family size and corporal punishment use. The use of corporal punishment significantly increased in large families (Aliyahri & Goodman, 2008; Day et al., 1998; Gage & Silvester, 2002; Khoury-kassabury & Straus, 2011., Nobes & Smith, 2002; Qasem et al., 1998). In addition, number of children was found to be positively associated with frequent use and higher rates of approval (Dietz, 2000; Eamon & Zuehl, 2001; Flynn, 1994; Xu et al., 2000).

The higher prevalence of corporal punishment use by parents in larger families has been explained by different scholars. Accordingly, it could be explained by the economic stress of parents with larger number of children that could lead them to use corporal punishment on their children (Dawes et al., 2005; Dietz, 2000; Straus & Stewart, 1999). Moreover, parents with large number of children do not have adequate time to reason with their children (Dawes et al., 2005).

Place of Residence

The result of this study indicated that prevalence of corporal punishment use was not significantly associated with place of residence. However, the frequency of corporal punishment use was significantly associated with this variable, indicating the use was more frequent among rural parents than urban parents.

With respect to the frequency of corporal punishment use, similar finding was reported in Jimma Zone of Oromiya Regional State of Ethiopia (Dereje et al., 2014). Moreover, Giles-Sims et al. (1995) found in their study that those living in rural communities spanked more frequently than those living in urban communities.

5.5 Attitude toward Corporal Punishment and Demographic Variables

The study tested how parental attitude towards corporal punishment use varied across some demographic variables. It also examined which variables predict parental attitude. The results of the independent samples t-test, one way ANOVA, and multiple regressions are discussed below.

The result of the independent samples t-test indicated that there is significant difference between mothers and fathers with respect to their attitude towards corporal punishment. Mothers were found to be significantly more supportive of corporal punishment than fathers. This result is in line with some previous studies (Gracia & Herrero, 2008). However, contrary to this finding,

some studies reported that males held more supportive attitude toward corporal punishment than females (Flynn, 1998). In addition, others found that parents' attitude toward corporal punishment did not vary by their gender (Qasem et al., 1998; Zoysa et al., 2015).

Unlike other studies that reported difference between older and younger parents with respect to their attitude towards corporal punishment (Straus & Mathur, 1996; Carswell, 2001), in this study, parental attitude didn't significantly vary with their age. These inconsistencies need to be addressed in future studies.

Parents' place of residence was another variable that resulted in a significant difference in attitude. The result of the t-test indicated that parents from rural areas tended to hold more supportive attitude toward corporal punishment than those from urban area. This result is consistent with previous studies that reported participants from urban area were less likely to held supportive attitude towards corporal punishment use (Cappa & Dam, 2014). Nho and Seng (2017) examined Cambodian parents' perception of the use of corporal punishment and found that parents who resided in rural areas were more likely to have positive perception of corporal punishment than those who resided in urban areas.

The result of one way ANOVA also indicated that there was significant difference in attitude towards corporal punishment across parents' education level; that is, parents with lower education level had greater support than those with higher education level. This result is consistent with a number of previous studies (Durrant, 1999; Eamon & Zuehl, 2001; Hunter et al., 2000; Qasem et al., 1998). This difference may be because parents with higher level of education have greater awareness about child-rearing techniques and the negative outcomes of using physical force on children.

Family size, that was considered to be number of children in this study, found to be the other variable that resulted in a significant difference in attitude towards corporal punishment. The result revealed that parents with larger number of children were more likely to have greater support to corporal punishment than those with small number of children. Similarly, previous studies showed that parents with larger families were more likely to approve and use corporal punishment than parents with smaller families (Alhary & Goodman, 2008; Eamon & Zuehl, 2001; Xu et al., 2000; Yousef et al., 1998a). The explanation for this can be since parents with more children have less time and energy to monitor, explain, and reason with each child, they may use corporal punishment as a quick form of discipline (Straus, 2010) and as a result, they may develop positive attitude towards using corporal punishment.

Finally, the study used multiple regressions to identify the predictor variables of attitude toward corporal punishment. The regression model conducted for the predictor variables was found to be significant and accounted for 37% of the variation in attitude. The contribution of parents' education level, number of children, place of residence, and gender to the model were statistically significant. Parents' education level was found to be the primary predictor of attitude towards corporal punishment. Previous studies also showed that parental education level was a significant predictor of their attitude towards corporal punishment (Eamon & Zuehl, 2001; Hunter et al., 2000; Qasem et al., 1998). Dittman, Sibley, and Farruggia (2013) studied attitude of parents in New Zealand and found that among the variables they examined, level of education was one of the strongest and most reliable predictor of attitude towards corporal punishment.

In sum, according to the findings of this study, parents more likely to have positive attitude towards corporal punishment are females, those who live in rural areas, with lower education level, and those who have larger number of children.

As discussed above, most of the results are statistically significant. Hence, by and large, the results of the present study are consistent with Belsky's (1980) theoretical model. The results indicate that parental use of and attitude toward corporal punishment are related to different factors at individual, familial, and community level.

5.6. Association between Attitude toward and Use of Corporal Punishment

The result of this study indicated statistically significant association between attitude of parents toward corporal punishment and actual use of it. Parents with supportive attitude were found to be 1.064 times more likely to use corporal punishment on their children. This result is consistent with several studies. Parents' attitude towards corporal punishment was found to predict their actual use of corporal punishment at home (Bower-Russa, 2005; Frias–Armenta et al., 2004; Graziano et al., 1996; Guttman et al., 2009; Socolar & Stein, 1995; Vittrup et al., 2006). The explanation for this can be parents who believe that corporal punishment is an effective disciplining technique for shaping a child's behaviour are more likely to use corporal punishment on their children than those who consider it as an ineffective tool for disciplining (Gagne et al., 2007).

5.7. View on Legal Ban of Corporal Punishment

Finally, the study assessed the view of parents regarding the legal ban of parental corporal punishment use. Most participants reported that they do not believe in legal ban of the use of all forms of corporal punishment by parents. Besides, larger number of parents reported that they do not believe in legal ban of the use of severe forms of corporal punishment by parents. However, a substantial number of parents (48%) reported that they believe in the legal ban of severe types of corporal punishment. It was found that larger number of parents living in urban area, who had

large number of children, and those with higher education level believed in the ban of severe types of corporal punishment.

A little is known on parents' view on legal ban of corporal punishment in Ethiopia .The only available report on similar issue perhaps is the study conducted by Save the Children Sweden and African Child Policy Forum (2005). They studied adults' perception of physical and humiliating punishment. From the focus group discussions conducted, it was found that light punishments like caning, pinching, scolding, and glaring are in most communities considered not only acceptable, but are also seen as a parental right to ensure the rearing of a child with good manners. The study also found that almost all adults contacted were against serious beatings and excessive punishments that result in physical injury such as burning a child or forcing to inhale the smoke from peppers. In the current study, about half of the participants reported that they believe in legal ban of such severe forms of corporal punishment.

Currently, 53 states have completely banned corporal punishment at all settings (Global Initiative to End all Corporal Punishment of Children, 2018).Different studies conducted in Western countries that have legally banned corporal punishment indicated that changes happened in behaviour and attitude. For example, Bussmann (2004) conducted a study to evaluate the impact of the ban on corporal punishment in Germany and he found that a significant decrease in the prevalence of corporal punishment. However, similar legislation may not bring about the same change in the study area since Ethiopia differs culturally from most Western countries.

In Ethiopia, corporal punishment has been prohibited in schools but not at home. Though legally prohibited in schools, recent findings reported that physical punishment is still practiced by teachers in many schools in Ethiopia (Orgando Portela & Pells, 2015).

Moreover, the study conducted by Save the Children Sweden and African Child Policy Forum (2005) reported that most adults expressed skepticism and resentment towards the official prohibition of corporal punishment in schools. According to this study, most teachers believe in the abolishment of school corporal punishment in principle, but consider it to be impractical in the Ethiopian context. The complete ban of corporal punishment in schools was considered as unwise by the teachers unless some necessary conditions are met. The study also reported that some adults did not accept the idea of banning corporal punishment even in principle. In addition, even government officials showed resistance to the rule abolishing corporal punishment in schools. This is stated in the study as:

“Regional education bureau officials also confirmed the existence of a strong belief among teachers and parents that corporal punishment is a good way to discipline children. They also reiterate the considerable resistance that has been displayed by teachers and parents to the rule prohibiting corporal and emotional punishments in schools.” (Save the children Sweden and African Child Policy Forum, 2005, p.19)

From the foregoing discussion, it can be understood that legislation alone may not be sufficient to bring change on the use of and attitude toward corporal punishment. According to Zolotor and Puzia (2010), in Sweden, corporal punishment support and behaviours declined before the ban on corporal punishment and continued to decline after the ban. For them, the deduction from this is that corporal punishment legislation does not work in a vacuum, but is part of a dynamic national cultural landscape.

Based on the above discussion and the present finding, it seems that legal ban of all forms of corporal punishment at home may be ideal under the current Ethiopian context. Since the use of corporal punishment as a child disciplining technique is considered as an acceptable practice

and there is deep cultural belief regarding its use, it seems that legal ban of all forms of corporal punishment might not be effective at the present Ethiopian condition and it may face great resistance from parents.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

6.1. Conclusion

The main purpose of this study was to assess parents' use of and attitude toward corporal punishment. Accordingly, the following research questions were addressed.

1. What are the prevalence and frequency of corporal punishment use among parents?
2. What is the attitude of parents towards corporal punishment?
3. What types of corporal punishment are commonly used by parents?
4. Which child misbehaviours commonly lead parents to use corporal punishment?
5. Which age groups and gender of children are most frequently being corporally punished?
6. Is there significant association between the prevalence of corporal punishment and the selected demographic variables of parents?
7. Is there significant association between the frequency of corporal punishment and the selected demographic variables of parents?
8. How does attitude of parents toward corporal punishment differ across gender, age, education level, number of children, and place of residence of parents?
9. Which of the demographic variables significantly predict parents' attitude toward corporal punishment?
10. How is attitude of parents associated with their use of corporal punishment?
11. What is the view of parents on legal ban of parental corporal punishment?

In order to answer the aforementioned research questions, data were collected from a random sample of 544 parents living in Dessie town and rural areas around it. A self-administered questionnaire was used to collect the data. The collected data were analyzed using statistical method such as percentages, chi-square, t-test, one way ANOVA, and multiple regressions.

The result suggests that corporal punishment use was found to be highly prevalent and frequent among the research participants. The majority of parents reported they used corporal punishment on their children within the past 12 months and most of them used it frequently. The majority of the participants of the study were found to be in favour of the use of corporal punishment.

The common types of punishment used by the participants were also identified. Accordingly, the most common types of punishment used by parents were found to be knocking on the head, pinching between the thighs, slapping on the face with an open hand, beating the arm, buttock, or leg with an open hand, and beating with an object. Moreover, the result indicated that the most common types of misbehaviour corporally punished by parents were stealing, disobedience, lying, playing with dangerous objects, and quarrelling with siblings or other children.

This study also revealed that younger children are more frequently punished than older children. Likewise, boys were found to be more likely to experience more frequent corporal punishment than girls.

In addition to assessing the prevalence of and attitude toward corporal punishment, the study also examined factors associated with them.

Factors such as parents' gender, age, education level, place of residence and number of children were examined in relation to prevalence and frequency of corporal punishment. The result indicated that age, gender, education level, and number of children were significantly associated with prevalence and frequency of corporal punishment use. Corporal punishment was found to be more prevalent and frequent among younger than older parents; and also among mothers than fathers. In addition, parents who were illiterate and had lower education level used corporal punishment more frequently than parents whose level of education was higher. Moreover, the prevalence and frequency of corporal punishment was found to be higher in parents with larger than smaller number of children.

Regarding attitude toward corporal punishment and demographic variables, the study showed that four variables resulted in statistically significant difference among parents. These were gender, education level, number of children, and place of residence.

Mothers were found to be more likely to support corporal punishment use than fathers. Parents with higher level of education had less support to the practice of corporal punishment than those parents who were illiterate and with lower education level. It was also indicated that parents who had more children were more likely to be in favour of using corporal punishment than those with small number of children. And finally, the study showed that rural residents had greater support to the use of corporal punishment than urban residents. In this study, parents' level of education was found to be the primary predictor variable of attitude towards corporal punishment.

The study revealed that parental attitude towards corporal punishment was significantly associated with their use of corporal punishment. Parents who support corporal punishment were found to be 1.064 times more likely to use corporal punishment on their children.

Concerning parents' view on legal ban of parental corporal punishment, the result showed that the majority of the participants did not believe in legal ban of either 'all types' or 'sever types' of corporal punishment. More specifically, 89% and 52% of the participants reported that they do not believe in banning all forms and sever forms of corporal punishment respectively. However, large proportion of parents who had higher education level reported that they had a belief in the idea of legally banning sever forms of corporal punishment. Likewise, most of the parents who reported similar belief were those who had larger number of children, and who were residing in urban area.

Strengths and Limitations of the Study

The study has a number of strengths. The available studies conducted on corporal punishment in Ethiopia primarily focused on its prevalence and were conducted in school settings. To the best of my knowledge, little research is available that investigated the parental use of and attitude towards corporal punishment in an ecological framework under the Ethiopian context. Hence, this study assessed the use of parental corporal punishment, both prevalence and frequency, along with associated factors by collecting data from households. Moreover, the attitude of parents towards corporal punishment and its predictor variables were examined. This study, therefore, can increase the scope of understanding the prevalence of and attitude toward parental corporal punishment use since it addressed the issue from ecological perspective.

Different committees such as CAT repeatedly provided recommendations to the State of Ethiopia to legally ban all types of punishment on children at home and this study attempted to assess the view of parents regarding legal ban of corporal punishment. Though further research is required, the study can give a light to the concerned bodies when they contemplate whether or not to legally prohibit parental use of corporal punishment in the country.

Since it was a partial fulfillment for a PhD study with specified time and budget, the study has a number of limitations. First, it assessed the issue of corporal punishment from only parental perspective. The issue would have a complete picture if the study had considered children's perspective. Secondly, the study focused on prevalence and frequency of corporal punishment without collecting data on severity and chronicity of the types of punishment used by parents. Such data could have brought full understanding of the types of corporal punishment that were identified in the study.

Third, because the study used single items rather than a scale to measure some variables, for example, corporal punishment prevalence and frequency, these measurements might have limitations in accurately describing the variables. Finally, the study was limited only to some selected demographic variables that were expected to be associated with prevalence of and attitude toward corporal punishment.

6.2. Recommendation and Implication

The main purpose of this study was to assess parental use of and attitude toward corporal punishment. Using ecological approach, factors associated with prevalence and frequency of corporal punishment use were identified. Factors that may predict attitude towards corporal punishment were also examined.

The result of the study elucidated that the prevalence and frequency of corporal punishment as well as attitude towards its use are associated with different factors at individual, family, and community levels. The study also identified the common types of corporal punishment used by parents and the common types of child misbehaviours that lead parents to use corporal punishment. Finally, the study assessed the view of parents on legal ban of corporal punishment. Thus, the knowledge obtained from the findings of the study may have significant

implication for policymakers, researchers, and organizations that work on child development and welfare.

Based on the result of the study, the following recommendation can be made. First, public awareness of the consequence of using corporal punishment on children should be created. Second, alternative forms of discipline that do not involve physical force should be promoted. In relation to this, using various mass media, traditional self-help associations like *Idir* and religious institutions can be the best way to reach parents at large.

Third, prevention and intervention strategies should be culture specific. In addition, more considerable attention should be given to parents who are with lower education level, with large number of children, and those who are residents of rural areas.

Fourth, instead of banning all forms of corporal punishment in all settings, enforcing the existing laws and changing public attitude towards corporal punishment use should be given top priority.

Fifth, since Ethiopia is a multi-ethnic and multi-cultural country with a variety of child-rearing practices, research on the prevalence, type, severity, chronicity, and effect of parental corporal punishment as well as societal attitude towards its use should be conducted on parents and children at national level.

Finally, further studies on similar issues are recommended to use multiple item ratings to measure prevalence and frequency of corporal punishment, and to incorporate additional demographic factors and qualitative approach.

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Appendices

A: Ethical Clearance



Ethical Clearance for M/D students: Research on human participants

The Ethics Committee of the Department of Psychology at Unisa has evaluated this research proposal for a Higher Degree in Psychology in light of appropriate ethical requirements, with special reference to the requirements of the Code of Conduct for Psychologists of the HPCSA and the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics.

Student Name: Nuredin Mohammed Ali **Student no.** 50876961

Supervisor: Prof. Tilahun Sineshaw **Affiliation:** External supervisor

Title of project:

Assessment of Parental Attitude towards Corporal Punishment

The proposal was evaluated for adherence to appropriate ethical standards as required by the Psychology Department of Unisa. The application was approved by the Ethics Committee of the Department of Psychology on the understanding that –

- All ethical requirements regarding informed consent, the right to withdraw from the study, the protection of participant's privacy and confidentiality of the information will be met to the satisfaction of the supervisor;

Signed:

पर्यावरण

Prof. M Papaikonomou

[For the Ethics Committee]
[Department of Psychology, Unisa]

Date: 2015/10/21

Appendix B: Informed Consent Form English Version

My name is Nuredin Mohammed. This is to get your consent to participate in the present study that I conduct as a Ph.D candidate in the University of South Africa (UNISA), in the department of psychology. The study focuses on parental attitudes toward corporal punishment use on their children.

The purpose of the study is to assess the attitude of parents toward use of corporal punishment. I would like to explore how attitude toward and usage of corporal punishment differ across different demographic variables of parents.

Participation in this study is fully voluntary; refusal to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time is right and that anonymity will be guaranteed confidentiality will be maintained. There is no any risk from participating in the study. No need of writing your name or any personal indicators, a code number is given to the questionnaire. If you agree to participate in the study, you are kindly requested to sign on the consent form below to express your agreement in regards to your understanding and willingness to take part in the study and then, to complete the questionnaire.

To be completed by the participant

From the given explanation and the consent form I read, I have been fully informed about the purpose of the study and its procedures as well as related facts about participation in the study. Therefore, I agree to take part in the study and I confirm this through my signature below.

Signature_____

Date /__/_/_____/

Appendix C: Informed Consent Form Amharic Version

የተሳትፎ ፈቃደኝነት መጠየቅ ቅፅ

ኑረዲን መሀመድ አባላለሁ፡፡ይህ ቅፅ የተዘጋጀው በደቡብ አፍሪካ ዩኒቨርሲቲ በሳይኮሎጂ ትምህርት ክፍል ለምማረው የሶስተኛ ዲግሪ ማሟያ ጥናት ላይ እንዲሳተፉ ፈቃደኝነትዎን ለመጠየቅ ነው፡፡ጥናቱ ወላጆች በልጆቻቸው ላይ ስለሚጠቀሙት አካላዊ ቅጣትና ለአካላዊ ቅጣት ያላቸው አመለካከት ላይ ያተኮረ ነው፡፡

የዚህ ጥናት ዋና ዓላማ ስለ ወላጆች አካላዊ ቅጣት አጠቃቀምና አመለካከት መገምገም ነው፡፡የአካላዊ ቅጣት አጠቃቀምና አመለካከት ከተለያዩ የወላጆች ማህበራዊና ስነ-ህዝባዊ ባህርያት ጋር እንዴት አብረው እንደሚለዋወጡ መመርመር እፈልጋለሁ፡፡

በዚህ ጥናት ላይ መሳተፍ ሙሉ በሙሉ በፈቃደኝነት ላይ የተመሰረተ ሲሆን በማንኛውም ጊዜ ማቋረጥ የተሳታፈው መብት ነው፡፡የሚሰጡት መረጃ ሚስጥራዊነቱ በጥበቅ የተጠበቀና ለጥናቱ ዓላማ ብቻ የሚውል ነው፡፡

ይህ ጥናት ሙሉ በሙሉ ለትምህርት ፍጆታ የሚውል ሲሆን በጥናቱ መሳተፍ በርስዎ ላይ ምንም ዓይነት አሉታዊ ውጤት አይኖረውም፡፡

በዚህ ጥናት ለመሳተፍ ከተስማሙ ፈቃደኝነትዎን ለመግለፅ ከዚህ በታች ባለው ቅፅ ላይ እንዲፈርሙ በትህትና እጠይቃለሁ፡፡

በጥናቱ ተሳታፊ የሚሞላ

ከተሰጠው ገለፃና ከላይ ባነበበኩት መረጃ መሠረት ስለዚህ ጥናት ዓላማና ሂደት እንዲሁም ከተሳትፎ ጋር በተያያዙ ጉዳዮች ዙሪያ ሙሉ መረጃ አግኝቻለሁ፡፡ስለዚህ በዚህ ጥናት ላይ ለመሳተፍ ስምምነቴን በፊርማዎ አረጋግጣለሁ፡፡

ፊርማ _____

ቀን ____/____/____

Appendix D: Questionnaire English Version

Dear parents,

The main purpose of this study is to assess parental use of and attitude towards` corporal punishment (i.e. hitting, beating, pinching etc.).This questionnaire is designed to gather information about your usage of and attitude towards corporal punishment. The success of this study, to a great extent, relies on your genuine responses. Therefore, you are kindly requested to read each question carefully and give your responses to all questions freely and genuinely.

The responses you provide here will be kept confidential and will only be used for the purpose of the study. No personal information will be disclosed under any circumstance. Don't write your name on this questionnaire.

In responding to the questionnaire, please put a check mark (**X**) in only one box of the alternative that you think appropriate among the given options.

I very sincerely appreciate your assistance and cooperation in taking your time to respond to this questionnaire.

Part I. Background Information

Please give information about yourself for each of the questions below.

1.What is your age?

2. What is your gender?

☐ Male

☐ Female

3. What is your highest educational level?

- ☐ Illiterate
- ☐ Elementary level
- ☐ Junior secondary level
- ☐ Senior secondary level
- ☐ College diploma
- ☐ Bachelor degree or above

4. Where do you live?

- ☐ Urban area
- ☐ Rural area

5. How many children do you have in your household?

When you answer the following questions, please, take into consideration that corporal punishment means a physical act such as hitting, pinching, beating or other physical strategy used by parents to discipline their children.

A.Use of Corporal Punishment

1. Did you physically punish any one of your children during the past 12 months for doing something wrong?

- ☐ Yes ☐ No (If no, please go to part D)

2. How often did you use corporal punishment during the past 12 months?

- Often ☐ Sometimes ☐ Rarely ☐

3. Indicate how often you have used physical punishment during the past 12 months on your child identified in the age range given below. Please put **X** on all the category that apply.

| Age group in years | Frequency of corporal punishment use | | | |
|--------------------|--------------------------------------|-----------|--------|-------|
| | Often | Sometimes | Rarely | Never |
| 0-2 | | | | |
| 3-5 | | | | |
| 6-8 | | | | |
| 9-11 | | | | |
| 12-14 | | | | |
| 15 or older | | | | |

4. Which of your child (male or female) did you physically punish more frequently during the last 12 months? (If your children are of the same sex, please skip this question)

☐ Male

☐ Female

☐ No sex difference

B. Types of Corporal Punishment

Which of the following types of punishment have you used on any of your children? (Please put a check mark(X) on the column that you choose)

| S.No. | Type of punishment | Never | Once or twice | More than twice |
|-------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------|---------------|-----------------|
| 1 | Slapping a child on the face with an open hand | | | |
| 2 | Knocking on the child's head | | | |
| 3 | Pulling a child's hair | | | |
| 4 | Twisting a child's ears | | | |
| 5 | Pinching a child between the thighs | | | |
| 6 | Beating a child's arm, buttock, or leg with an open hand | | | |
| 7 | Beating a child with an object such as belt, stick ,electric wire or some other hard material | | | |
| 8 | Forcing a child to inhale the smoke of burning pepper | | | |
| 9 | Tying a child with rope and beating him/her | | | |
| 10 | Burning a child with a hot iron | | | |
| 11 | Preventing a child from food | | | |
| 12 | Beating a child with burning wood | | | |

C. Types of Misbehavior

Have you physically punished any one of your children for doing any one of the following misbehaviors? (Please put **X** for all categories that apply. If the misbehavior didn't occur, don't mark on it.)

| No. | Type of misbehavior | Never punished | Rarely punished | Always punished |
|-----|-----------------------------------------------------------|----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| 1 | Disobedience | | | |
| 2 | Stealing | | | |
| 3 | Lying | | | |
| 4 | Persistent crying | | | |
| 5 | Not washing hands before or after eating | | | |
| 6 | Playing with dangerous objects such as knife, needle etc. | | | |
| 7 | Quarreling with siblings or other children | | | |
| 8 | Damaging home property | | | |
| 9 | Poor academic achievement in school | | | |
| 10 | Going out of home without permission | | | |
| 11 | Coming to home late during the night | | | |
| 12 | Smoking cigarette | | | |
| 13 | Chewing Khat | | | |
| 14 | Drinking alcohol | | | |
| 15 | Using bad words | | | |
| 16 | Urinating during the night | | | |
| 17 | Making too much noise at home | | | |

D. Attitude towards Corporal Punishment

The table below listed statements which reflect commonly held attitudes towards corporal punishment. Read each statement carefully and put the check mark (X) in the column that indicates your level of agreement/disagreement.

| S.No. | Statements | Strongly agree | Agree | Neither agree nor disagree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
|-------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------|-------|----------------------------|----------|-------------------|
| 1 | Corporal punishment is necessary as a means of child discipline. | | | | | |
| 2 | Corporal punishment is an effective strategy to discipline a child. | | | | | |
| 3 | If a child is not beaten for his/her wrong doings, he/she will not learn what is right. | | | | | |
| 4 | Parents should never use physical punishment to discipline their children. | | | | | |
| 5 | Since physically punishing children may have negative consequence we should discontinue the practice. | | | | | |
| 6 | Corporal punishment of children is not an acceptable action. | | | | | |
| 7 | Use of corporal punishment at home is justified. | | | | | |
| 8 | Corporal punishment is not harmful to children. | | | | | |

E. View on Legal Ban of Corporal Punishment

1. Do you believe that parents have the full right to discipline their children using any means?

☐

I believe

☐

I do not believe

2. Do you believe that the use of all forms of corporal punishment by parents should be legally banned?

☐

I believe

☐

I do not believe

Thank you very much for completing this questionnaire.

Appendix E: Questionnaire Amharic Version

መጠይቅ

ውድ ወላጆች፡-

የዚህ ጥናት ዋና ዓላማ ስለወላጆች አካላዊ ቅጣት(መምታት ፤መግረፍ፤መቆንጠጥ ..ወዘተ) አጠቃቀምና አመለካከት መገምገም ነው፡፡ይህ መጠይቅም የተዘጋጀው ስለ እርስዎ አካላዊ ቅጣት አጠቃቀምና አመለካከት መረጃ ለመሰብሰብ ነው፡፡የዚህ ጥናት ስኬታማነት በላቀ ደረጃ የሚወሰነው እርስዎ በሚሰጡት ትክክለኛ ምላሽ ነው፡፡በመሆኑም እያንዳንዱን ጥያቄ በጥሞና በማንበብ ለሁሉም ጥያቄዎች በነፃነትና በታማኝነት ምላሽዎን እንዲሰጡ እጠይቃለሁ፡፡

በዚህ መጠይቅ የሚሰጡት ምላሽ ሚስጥራዊነቱ የተጠበቀና ለጥናቱ ዓላማ ብቻ የሚውል ነው፡፡የሚሰጡት የግል መረጃዎ በየትኛውም ሁኔታ ለሌላ አካል ይፋ አይደረግም፡፡በዚህ መጠይቅ በየትኛውም ቦታ ላይ ስምዎን አይፃፉ፡፡

ለመጠይቁ ምላሽ በሚሰጡበት ወቅት ከተሰጡት አማራጮች ትክክለኛ ነው ብለው የሚያስቡትን መልስ በሚያመለክተው ሳጥን ወስጥ ብቻ የ X ምልክት በማስቀመጥ ምላሽዎን ይሰጡ፡፡

ጊዜዎን ሰውተው ለዚህ መጠይቅ ምላሽ በመስጠት ለሚያደርጉልኝ እገዛና ትብብር ያለኝ አድናቆትና ምስጋና እጅግ የላቀ ነው፡፡

ግላዊ መረጃ

እባክዎ ከዚህ ቢታች ለተዘረዘሩ ጥያቄዎች ስለእርስዎ መረጃ ይስጡ

1. ዕድሜዎ ስንት ነው?

2. የታዎ ምንድን ነው?

☐ ወንድ

☐ ሴት

3. ከፍተኛው የትምህርት ደረጃዎ የትኛው ነው?

☐ ማንበብና መጻፍ የማይችል

☐ አንደኛ ደረጃ

☐ መለስተኛ ሁለተኛ ደረጃ

☐ ከፍተኛ ሁለተኛ ደረጃ

☐ የኮሌጅ ዲፕሎማ

☐ የመጀመሪያ ዲግሪ እና ከዚያ በላይ

4. የሚኖሩት በየትኛው አካባቢ ነው?

☐ በከተማ

☐ በገጠር

5. በቤትዎ ውስጥ ምን ያህል ልጆች አለዎት?

የሚከተሉትን ጥያቄዎች ሲመልሱ አካላዊ ቅጣት ማለት ወላጆች ልጆቻቸውን ስነስርዓት ለማስያዝ የሚጠቀሟቸው እንደ መምታት፣ መቆንጠጥ፣ መግረፍና ሌሎች አካላዊ የሆኑ ስልቶች ማለት መሆኑን ከግንዛቤ ውስጥ ያስገቡ፡፡

ሀ.የአካላዊ ቅጣት አጠቃቀም

1. ባለፉት የ12 ወራት ጊዜ ውስጥ ከልጆቻቸው መካከል አንዱን/ደኑን አንዱ/ደኑ ስህተት በመስራቱ/ቷ ምክንያት አካላዊ ቅጣት ቀጥተው ያውቃሉን?

☐ አውቃለሁ

አላውቅም(መልስዎ አላውቅም ከሆነ ወደ ክፍል መ ይለፉ)

2. ባለፉት የ12 ወራት ጊዜ ውስጥ አካላዊ ቅጣት ለምን ያህል ጊዜ ተጠቅመዋል?

ብዙ ጊዜ ☐

አንዳንዴ ☐

በጥቂቱ ☐

3. ከዚህ በታች በተመለከተው ሰንጠረዥ በተዘረዘረው የዕድሜ ክልል ውስጥ በሚገኝ/በምትገኝ ልጅዎ ላይ ባለፉት የ12 ወራት ጊዜ ውስጥ አካላዊ ቅጣት ምን ያህል በተደጋጋሚ እንደተጠቀሙ ለማመልከት በተገቢው ቦታ የ X ምልክት ያስቀምጡ፡፡

| የዕድሜ ክልል (በዓመት) | የተጠቀሙት አካላዊ ቅጣት የድግግሞሽ መጠን | | | |
|-----------------|----------------------------|-------|------|------|
| | ብዙ ጊዜ | አንዳንዴ | በጥቂቱ | በፍፁም |
| 0-2 | | | | |
| 3-5 | | | | |
| 6-8 | | | | |
| 9-11 | | | | |
| 12-14 | | | | |
| 15 ወይም ከዚያ በላይ | | | | |

4. ባለፉት የ12 ወራት ጊዜ ውስጥ ይበልጥ በተደጋጋሚ አካላዊ ቅጣት የቀጡት የትኛውን(ወንድ ወይስ ሴት) ልጅዎን ነው?

(ሁሉም ልጆችዎ ተመሳሳይ ያታ ካላቸው ይህን ጥያቄ ይለፉት)

☐ ወንድ

☐ ሴት

☐ የያታ ልዩነት የለም

ለየቅጣት ዓይነቶች

ከሚከተሉት የቅጣት ዓይነቶች ውስጥ የትኞቹን በልጆችዎ ላይ ተጠቅመው ያውቃሉ?(አባክዎ በመረጡት ረድፋ ላይ የX ምልክት ያስቀመጡ::)

| ተ.ቁጥር | የቅጣት ዓይነቶች | በፍፁም | አንድ ጊዜ ወይ ሁለት ጊዜ | ከሁለት ጊዜ በላይ |
|-------|--------------------------------------------------|------|------------------|-------------|
| 1 | በባዶ እጅ የልጅን ፊት በጥፊ መምታት | | | |
| 2 | የልጅን ጭንቅላት መኮርኮም | | | |
| 3 | የልጅን ፀጉር መጎተት | | | |
| 4 | የልጅን ጆሮ ማፍተልተል | | | |
| 5 | ልጅን በጭኖች መሃል መቆንጠጥ | | | |
| 6 | በባዶ እጅ የልጅን ከንድ፤መቀመጫ፤ ወይም እግር መግረፍ | | | |
| 7 | ልጅን በቀበቶ፤በአርጨጫ፤ በኤሌትሪክ ገመድ ወይም በሌላ ጠንካራ ነገር መግረፍ | | | |
| 8 | ልጅን በርበሬ ማጠን | | | |
| 9 | ልጅን በገመድ አስሮ መግረፍ | | | |
| 10 | ልጅን በጋለ ብረት ማቃጠል | | | |
| 11 | ልጅን ምግብ መከልከል | | | |
| 12 | ልጅን በሚነድ እንጨት መግረፍ | | | |

ሐ. የስነምግባር ጉድለት ዓይነቶች

ከዚህ ቢታች ከተዘረዘሩት የስነ ምግባር ጉድለቶች መካከል አንዱን በመፈፀሙ/ሟ ምክንያት ከልጆችዎ መካከል አንዱን/ዷን በአካላዊ ቅጣት ቀጥተው ያውቃሉን ? (እባክዎ በሚመለከተው ቦታ ላይ የ X ምልክት ያድርጉ:: የስነምግባር ጉድለቱ ተፈፅሞ የማያውቅ ከሆነ ምልክት አያስቀምጡ::)

| ተራ ቁጥር | የስነ ምግባር ጉድለት ዓይነቶች | በፍፁም አልቀጣሁም | አልፎ አልፎ ቀጥቻለሁ | ሁልጊዜም እቀጣለሁ |
|--------|----------------------------------------|-------------|---------------|-------------|
| 1 | ትዕዛዝ አለማክበር | | | |
| 2 | መስረቅ | | | |
| 3 | መዋሸት | | | |
| 4 | ያለማቋረጥ ማልቀስ | | | |
| 5 | ከምግብ በፊትና በኋላ እጅን አለመታጠብ | | | |
| 6 | አደገኛ በሆኑ ነገሮች ለምሳሌ በቢላዋና በመርፌ ወዘተ መጫወት | | | |
| 7 | ከእህት፣ወንድም ወይም ሌሎች ልጆች ጋር መጣላት | | | |
| 8 | የቤት ውስጥ ንብረቶች ላይ ጉዳት ማድረስ | | | |
| 9 | በትምህርት ቤት ዝቅተኛ ውጤት ማምጣት | | | |
| 10 | ያለፈቃድ ከቤት መውጣት | | | |
| 11 | ወደ ቤት አምሸቶ መምጣት | | | |
| 12 | ሲጋራ ማጨስ | | | |
| 13 | ጫት መቃም | | | |
| 14 | አልኮል መጠጥ መጠጣት | | | |
| 15 | መጥፎ/የብልግና/ ቃላትን መጠቀም | | | |
| 16 | በምሽት ወቅት በመኝታ ላይ ሽንት መሸናት | | | |
| 17 | በቤት ውስጥ ከፍተኛ ጩኸት በመፍጠር ፀጥታ ማወክ | | | |

መ. ስለ አካላዊ ቅጣት ያለ አመለካከት

ከዚህ በታች በሚገኘው ሰንጠረዥ ለአካላዊ ቅጣት የሚኖር አመለካከትን የሚያንፀባርቁ ዐ.ነገሮች ተዘርዝረዋል። እያንዳንዱን ዐ.ነገር በጥንቃቄ ካነበቡ በኋላ የእርስዎን የመስማማት/አለመስማማት ደረጃ በሚያንፀባርቀው ረድፍ ላይ የ X ምልክት ያስቀምጡ።

| ተራ ቁጥር | ዐረፍተ ነገር | በጣም እስማማለሁ | እስማማለሁ | ለመወሰን አቸገራለሁ | አልስማማም | በጣም አልስማማም |
|--------|---------------------------------------------------------------|------------|--------|--------------|--------|------------|
| 1 | አካላዊ ቅጣት ልጅን ስነ ስርዓት ለማስያዝ አስፈላጊ ዘዴ ነው። | | | | | |
| 2 | አካላዊ ቅጣት ልጅን ስነ ስርዓት ለማስያዝ ውጤታማ ስልት ነው። | | | | | |
| 3 | ልጅ ሲያጠፋ/ስታጠፋ ካልተገረፈ/ች ትክክለኛውን ነገር ሊማር/ልትማር አይችልም/አትችልም። | | | | | |
| 4 | ወላጆች ልጆቻቸውን ስነ ስርዓት ለማስያዝ አካላዊ ቅጣትን በፍፁም መጠቀም የለባቸውም። | | | | | |
| 5 | አካላዊ ቅጣት በልጆች ላይ አሉታዊ ተፅዕኖ ሊኖረው ስለሚችል ይህን ድርጊት መጠቀም ማቆም አለብን። | | | | | |
| 6 | ልጆችን በአካላዊ ቅጣት መቅጣት ተቀባይነት የሌለው ድርጊት ነው። | | | | | |
| 7 | በቤት ውስጥ የሚፈፀም አካላዊ ቅጣት ተገቢ ነው። | | | | | |
| 8 | አካላዊ ቅጣት በልጆች ላይ ጉዳት አያደርስም። | | | | | |

ሠ.አካላዊ ቅጣትን በህግ ስለመከልከል ያለ እይታ

1.በወላጆች የሚፈፀሙ ሁሉም የአካላዊ ቅጣት ዓይነቶች በህግ መከልከል አለባቸው ብለው ያምናሉን?

☐ አምናለሁ

☐ አላምንም

2.በወላጆች የሚፈፀሙ ከባድ የአካላዊ ቅጣት ዓይነቶች በህግ መከልከል አለባቸው ብለው ያምናሉን?

☐ አምናለሁ

☐ አላምንም

ይህን መጠይቅ ስለሞሉልኝ በጣም አመሰግናለሁ